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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 15, 1905.

The Week.

The President's identical note to Japan and Russia constitutes, we believe, a precedent without precedent. Technically a very guarded proffer of good offices, it actually was a plea that the belligerents resume direct negotiations. Such a request is unusual, and ordinarily would be deemed officious. Against any misapprehension of this overture, Mr. Roosevelt had taken precautions by securing approval of the substance of his note at Tokio and St. Petersburg. To dispatch once for all the comparatively minor matters of diplomatic form, it may be said that the innovation consists in accompanying a proffer of good offices with a concrete recommendation—to negotiate directly. Generally speaking, no such counsel is in order until the warring nations have given the neutral peacemaker some kind of mediatorial standing. It seems, however, to be a case in which the President's direct method injects into the formalities of diplomacy a refreshing element of common sense. Unquestionably, the counsel of direct negotiation expresses the judgment of civilization; and merely as an expression of the hope of the world, the President's plea is vastly creditable to its originator.

We are withholding relief to the Philippines in the form of an amended tariff; we are preparing next year to make them pay a higher price for the carrying of their hemp to our markets; but we *are* going to give them railroads. That is, we will let the Philippine Government guarantee 4 per cent. return for thirty years on 1,233 miles of railroad in the archipelago. Secretary Taft announced the plans and specifications on Sunday, and bids and proposals are to be received up to the first of November. We should have liked to see at least a preliminary effort made to secure bidders for the projected lines without the feature of a Government guarantee. It was stated on the floor of Congress that there was at least a chance of attracting capital on the simple merits of the business proposition. As finally passed, the Cooper bill had been vastly improved, careful safeguarding clauses being added, and the guaranteed return being reduced from 5 to 4 per cent. Granting the perfection of the measure in detail, however, we are simply taking a leaf from the books of countries which are developing colonies which they admittedly intend to hold permanently. The proper development of the islands under our care is a high purpose, but legislation of this kind must not be allowed to tie our hands against doing in time for the Filipinos what we have done for the Cubans.

If the advance in man's civilization is to be measured by his acquiring additional wants, the statistics of trade with the lesser of our "non-contiguous possessions" tell the story of an almost headlong advance from barbarism. A little pamphlet just issued by the Division of Foreign Markets in the Department of Agriculture shows that Guam and Tutuila received from us in the last year a somewhat astounding array of products which they had never had before. Guam in a year used 562 pounds of our butter, 180 of lard, 263 of bacon, 268 of ham, 100 pounds of raisins, 25 of prunes, and $20 worth of cocoa and chocolate. Not one of these was in the list of our exports at all for the preceding years. Tutuila has been just as prompt in taking up American products, though with decidedly different tastes. That fortunate island has bought eggs—240 dozen of them—$9 worth of feathers, $6 worth of honey, 6 gallons of syrup, 51 gallons of vinegar, 311 gallons of cider, and $3 worth of soap stock. Thus the staples in which we have formerly dealt with these possessions are now being supplemented by the odds and ends of the larder. Bret Harte, in one of his parodies, spoke of the Frenchman who, dropped in Senegambia, would in a week "give you an omelet served by the neatest of Senegambian *filles*, whom he will call 'Mademoiselle.'" It seems to have taken five years to get our prunes established in Guam and our soap stock in Tutuila, but the achievement is memorable, none the less, and obviously proves the wisdom of our entire expansion policy.

Minister Bowen's request to be allowed to return to Caracas and collect evidence against Assistant Secretary of State Loomis conveys a sense of regret for opportunities neglected. To live where accusations against Mr. Loomis could be gathered up by the bushel, and to come away with only a handful of the least damaging charges, bespeaks unfitness for the diplomatic career. But Bowen's slackness should not be accepted as Loomis's vindication. Improprieties already laid at his door make his continuance in office little short of scandalous, and there is more behind. That he should be conducting momentous international negotiations, even in a clerical capacity, is anomalous and most unfortunate.

The fight on the Maryland negro disfranchising amendment may be said to begin in earnest with Mr. Bonaparte's speech before the Republican State Committee on June 7. Senator Gorman is resolved to make this the one issue of the Democratic campaign this fall, and is really doing his best to bring about a division on the basis of color alone rather than party. As the negroes make up less than a fifth of the population of Maryland, according to the last census, anything like a union of the whites against them would, as a matter of course, put through the amendment, though this shows at the same time how utterly preposterous is the talk of any possible menace to white supremacy in the State. Of the particular form of the disfranchising amendment, it is enough to say at this time that it combines all the worst features which have been devised for any of the Southern constitutions. The Gulf States, by comparison, have liberal and enlightened suffrage provisions. Gov. Warfield, though a Democrat, opposes the amendment as drafted, and did not attend the recent meeting at which Gorman urged his policy before the members of the State Committee. There are undoubtedly many other Democrats who think with him. And, if the challenge to break party lines is accepted by the opponents as well as the advocates of negro disfranchisement, there is opportunity for a stinging rebuke to Gormanism.

The anti-Trust law recently enacted in Arkansas has been sustained by the Circuit Court of that State. In a unanimous opinion, it decided, a few days ago, that the Hartford Insurance Company was properly fined for one day's violation of the law forbidding such companies to do business in Arkansas if belonging to a pool or combination anywhere to fix rates. The order declaring that the company has forfeited its right to continue its business in the State, however, has been suspended pending the decision of the Supreme Court. In case the Circuit Court is sustained, the Hartford company may be penalized from $200 to $5,000 a day from the date the law went into effect. Another company, which decided to prepare a test case, has raised the point, in its defence, that legislation of this kind is an attempt to restrain interstate commerce, since it is not based on any claim that pooling agreements are made in Arkansas. Insurance companies and others of a similar character are watching the course of the litigation with interest. Their exclusion from Arkansas is not regarded as a vital blow, but it forecasts the sort of action that may be demanded in other States where the feeling against business combinations is growing distinctly hostile. One result the law, if

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sustained, will be certain to achieve: it will drive all the old-line insurance companies to the familiar expedient of incorporating dummy companies on the spot. Evasion is the natural result of legislation of so drastic a sort.

Candor is usually an unappreciated virtue in politics, but Mayor Williams of Portland, Oregon, is basing his hopes for reëlection upon it. In meeting the charges that he was party to a scheme to "milk" the gambling fraternity of the city, after the fashion of the Maine authorities in dealing with liquor-law violations, the Mayor says with surprising frankness that he secured some very necessary municipal improvements, including repaired fire-engine houses, only by the periodical collection of fines from the law-breakers. His excuses are admirably framed to appeal to a "practical" Westerner. He was opposed to gambling, but the juries that were drawn to try those arrested almost invariably acquitted them. Then the City Council held a secret meeting and recommended a system of fines. The Mayor heard of the decision and objected, but the matter was presented to him in this light: We have no money in the city treasury, the Lewis and Clark Fair is approaching, and we must have funds with which to put the city into a presentable condition. Our bridges, engine houses, and elevated roads are like "the little old log cabin in the lane" whose roof was caving in and chimney falling down. The fines paid by gamblers will give us money to use for repairs. The Mayor yielded, and in a campaign speech declared that if no graver charge than using a part of the "ill-gotten gains of the gamblers for the purpose of providing these noble men [the firemen] with comfortable quarters" he brought against him at the final judgment, he will answer cheerfully. At this point, so the reports state, the Mayor received "great applause."

The extremely strained situation which has existed for some time between Canadian and American lumbermen on the St. John River, and culminated in the blowing up of a boom by dynamite on May 27, is apparently on the way to peaceful settlement. The talk is now of appeal to the Maine Legislature and to Congress for action that will conclusively settle the question of what constitutes "obstruction" of the river. This may have to be settled ultimately by a supplementary treaty. The present dispute may turn out as bloodless as the famous "Aroostook war" in the same territory in the thirties. Behind the immediate dispute, however, is a most interesting commercial question. Under an act of Congress passed in 1866, lumber sawed in the St. John mills from logs cut in the State of Maine was given free entry, and this privilege was renewed in the Dingley law. It was a tariff concession brought about by the lay of the country, which made it hard to secure an outlet from the Maine forests to American mills. It brought to both sides of the river a prosperity which is worth the study of those politicians who predict disaster from Canadian reciprocity. The American lumbermen disposed of their logs on the Canadian side, and the Canadian sawmills had New York and Boston as markets for their product. At last, however, the opening of a railroad gave a new outlet to the region. American mill owners at once declared that the free-entry arrangement had served its purpose and should be discontinued. They prepared an appeal to Congress, and meanwhile the friendly and profitable relations which existed between the two sides of the river have been displaced by armed hostility.

The return of Benjamin B. Odell, jr., ex-Governor of the State of New York, Chairman of the Republican State Committee, again makes life here worth living. For some months Mr. Odell has cruelly exposed this bantling commonwealth on the rocks. To the surprise of everybody, New York has survived the ordeal. The Legislature, it is true, with no one to stand between it and the gas lobby and other sinister influences, suffered terribly. The members were forced to pocket the money themselves, instead of having it diverted to the use of the machine and its managers. The sight drew tears to the eyes of the most hardened bosses—although Senator McCarren, a goodly band of Republican Senators, and five Tammany heroes bore up with wonderful fortitude. Gov. Higgins fell into a sad pickle. He had nobody to make his mind up for him on the mortgage-tax question, and the strain of reaching a decision so unnerved him that he appointed notoriously bad men to office. The small-fry politicians, in despair because they could not find any one from whom to take orders, began running to Platt and Black for instructions. Party demoralization could go no further. But the master hand of Odell is again on the helm, and the ship of state is safe.

The annual report of the City and Suburban Homes Company is of especial interest this year, by reason of the impetus given to the construction of model tenements by Mr. Phipps's donation of one million dollars for that purpose. The company has been in full operation since 1899, and since 1900 has paid 4 per cent. annually to the investors who have subscribed its $3,500,000. It is confident, moreover, that an increase of its capital to $5,000,000 would enable it to pay 4½ per cent. annually. There could be no better demonstration that wholesome homes can be given to wage-earners in this city at moderate rentals which will still enable the investors to make a fair profit on their investment. If the City and Suburban Homes Company had done nothing else than establish this fact beyond dispute, it would have performed valuable service. Since Mr. Phipps's first houses are to be devoted to the colored people of the city, it is interesting to note that the Homes Company reports about them as follows: "The colored people have shown themselves to be excellent tenants, quite as orderly, cleanly, and as prompt in the payment of rent as the white occupants of the Company's other buildings. There has been but one case of disorderly conduct throughout the whole year." Nearly three-fifths of these tenants nave been in residence since the opening of the buildings, and the aggregate loss to the company from irrecoverable arrears was only $16.65 in the fiscal year just ended.

The action of the Corporation of the Institute of Technology in voting, 20 to 12, for amalgamation with Harvard will undoubtedly increase the feeling of bitterness which the proposal has created among a great majority of the alumni. Most of the graduates believe that their wishes should control, and that they are fighting for the future usefulness of Technology. To them its removal to Cambridge means the subordination of the work of the Institute to that of Harvard College. They maintain that the scholastic spirit at Harvard is not nearly so earnest and thorough as that at Technology, and they do not wish their future undergraduates to be brought even remotely into contact with the spirit of snobbishness and the aristocracy of wealth they charge upon Harvard's undergraduates. The Technology faculty, too, is strongly in opposition. It now remains for the courts to pass upon the legality of the proposed merger before it can take effect. What appeals to the outsider is the desirability of having one great technical school at Boston instead of two. There is virtue in amalgamation even in the world of education, and there must be other good reasons for it when the corporations of both colleges are so earnest for the consolidation. It is a great pity, however, that, if the new relationship is to be formed, the process should be accompanied by so much bad blood, by so many charges and countercharges of misrepresentation as have been current these last six months.

To depose a king not only in conformity to the rules of parliamentary order, but in complete tranquillity of mind, is something of a feat, and the Storthing, at Christiania, which on June 7 repudiated the Act of Union, declared there was no longer a King of Norway, and estab-

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lished the old Ministry as a provisional government, certainly must go down in history as an admirable exemplar of *sang froid*. Compared with the fact of a determination to dissolve the union, the technical arguments by which the vote was sustained are of merely local interest, and it must suffice to say that the Norwegians meet the argument that the Union of 1814 is not only indissoluble but unalterable except by consent of both parliaments, with the assertion that King Oscar, by declining to establish a new Government, has abdicated his royal function. What is plain is that Norway means to go her own way, and the only surprise is that the vote of deposition requests the King of Sweden to nominate to the Norwegian throne a prince of the line of Bernadotte.

The underlying causes of the declaration of independence are found primarily in the more democratic nature of the Norwegian state (where manhood suffrage and a governing parliament exist as against limited suffrage and a restricted parliament in Sweden), in the desire for foreign trade in maritime Norway as against the protectionism of agrarian and industrial Sweden, and, finally, in the looseness of the bond of union itself. Where the two Powers treated each other as foreigners at their respective custom houses, where Sweden alone represented the united kingdom before the diplomatic world, and the only symbol of the union in Norway was the royal presence, occasionally, and veto, which might be, and was, at times, overruled—evidently union meant rather little. There is, fortunately, slight prospect that Sweden will exercise her technical right to force Norway to stay in the union. Norway is already an independent State.

Cœlebs in search of a wife had no harder task than Norway in quest of a King. If King Oscar of Sweden should remain obdurate and refuse to name one of his sons; and if King Christian of Denmark, whose family has already supplied queens to England and Russia and a king to Greece, should feel that his contribution to monarchism is complete, it is hard to see where the Norwegians would turn for a ruler. In fact, the supply of royalties for a new State is almost always deficient. Only Servia and Montenegro, of recent royal establishments, have managed to provide a ruler at home. For Rumania a Hohenzollern had to be found, for Bulgaria a Saxe-Coburg. The selection in the present case is complicated by the fact that not every poor relation of a royal house will do. Plainly, no near kinsman of any of the great sovereigns would be acceptable to the rest. As for the crew of ex-royalties and pretenders that enliven watering-place life for unoccupied old maids of English and American extraction, the whole roster of Bourbon, Orleans, and Bonaparte would hardly furnish one eligible. As a personality and because of the close association of the houses of Bonaparte and Bernadotte, Prince Louis Napoleon might seem an attractive possibility. But his Russian major-generalcy seems to rule him out. In fine, for lack of suitable candidates for the throne, Norway may be reduced to republicanism—a form of government which, while contrary to all political tradition, would fit very well the present temper of the nation.

If the comic muse ever condescends to mere history, she will find material for humor in contrasting the attitude of Mr. Roosevelt towards the provisional governments of Panama and of Norway. Acting Secretary Loomis, we need hardly recall, inquired solicitously about the condition of the Republic of Panama some little time before the pang of mock revolution had brought the bantling commonwealth into the world. It was on this occasion that the scholiasts advanced the theory that Mr. Roosevelt's dominant quality was celerity. Turning from Panama to Christiania, these same pundits may draw the profound inference that circumstances alter cases, and that even celerity has its good and bad days. If ever there was a *de facto* government, it is Norway's; she has a parliament in session, an executive council of ministers, an army, and a navy. Moreover, it was known for some days before the resolution deposing King Oscar that secession was as good as accomplished, and divil a cablegram came from "Loomis, Acting." All of which seems to point to a culpable negligence in the Norwegians in failing to keep Washington officially posted as to the revolutionary schedule. Or is Mr. Loomis's hesitation due merely to a natural reluctance not to be caught again by the difference in time?

Premier Rouvier assumes the portfolio of Foreign Affairs with professions of friendliness to Germany, and with an engagement to consult Berlin on Moroccan matters. This satisfies the desire for recognition as a Mediterranean Power which Bülow and other spokesmen of Germany have persistently put forth. The question now is, Will Germany be satisfied with this concession to *amour propre*, or was the complaint merely a mask for more definite aspirations in the Western Mediterranean? In this matter one should not give too much weight to the expressions of the Pan-Germanic newspapers, which have already staked out a colony on the Atlantic littoral; Pan-Germanism, potentially a peril, has as yet hardly reached the level of serious political movements. More disquieting is the certainty that Count von Tattenbach has constituted himself the Sultan's guardian, and that German companies are receiving large concessions at Tangier. These activities show pretty clearly that the Kaiser wishes more than reparation for a past slight. It is evident, too, that Premier Rouvier, confronted by this aggressive policy of Germany, must either yield, or, returning to the tactics for which he virtually dismissed M. Delcassé, must take his stand firmly, beginning, if necessary, the actual occupation of the Sherifan domain. With the more idealistic statesmen, Pressensé, Jaurès, and others, Rouvier has thought it necessary to reorganize the Foreign Office on the theory that Germany had a just grievance, and that a mere recognition of her Mediterranean standing—ignored in the Anglo-French Agreement—would restore good feeling. Events will very soon put to the test the belief that German intervention at Fez was dictated by motives in the main sentimental and disinterested.

From diverse points of view, Chancellor von Bülow deserves the princely title and estates the Kaiser has bestowed upon him. The Moroccan diplomatic "success" undoubtedly gave the Kaiser the excuse for once more offering this honor, several times declined hitherto. But even if the outcome of the Tangier episode had been a different one, the Emperor would still have had reason to be satisfied with Von Bülow's services. In the first place, the Chancellor has shown himself to be an orator of great ability and a parliamentarian of no little distinction. He has, moreover, a charm of personality which has helped to give him a firm footing at court, and he has warmly seconded the Emperor's propaganda for a great fleet and an enlarged army. So far as foreign politics are concerned, there is no doubt, too that Von Bülow has achieved very considerable successes, one of his latest triumphs being the negotiation of reciprocity treaties when in some cases this seemed impossible. Despite the constant friction with England, foreign relations as a whole are in a very satisfactory state, and many observers attribute this to Von Bülow's skill in checking the impulsiveness of the Kaiser. From the Liberal and Socialist point of view, however, Von Bülow's honors seem highly paid. In international affairs—as in Germany's relations to Russia—the Chancellor represents the reactionaries. Social reforms receive little or no encouragement at his hands; he constantly inveighs against freedom of speech and of the press, and he has bought his legislative triumphs and held his Reichstag majority together by concessions to the Clericals (especially the Catholics), to the Agrarians, and to the protected interests, which will cost Germany dearly for decades to come.

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THE BATTLESHIP ON THE DEFENSIVE.

Says the London *Times*, speaking of the battle of the Sea of Japan, the question which all the world is now asking is, with what weapon Togo achieved his success. Particularly in Washington is the effect of Rozhestvensky's defeat upon the future of the battleship being carefully studied. Mr. Roosevelt, it will be remembered, insisted that the last Congress should appropriate money for at least four more battleships. Cruisers, scouts, torpedo boats might go hang; the safety of the nation was assured only by the battleship. Against its wishes as expressed in the protest of men like Senator Hale, Congress was forced to do his will to the extent of providing two more monsters of the sea, costing their five millions or more each. Naturally, there will be feelings hurt if, before these new ships are even planned, their value is shown to be far below the estimates.

Whether the naval world will ever know the exact methods by which the Japanese achieved success, will depend upon the readiness of a silent people to give their side. So far as the reports thus far received go, it may be accepted (1) that the battle was won in the first few minutes by the ferocity of the Japanese attack and the accuracy of their fire; (2) that perhaps, by reason of the high sea prevailing, the use of the torpedo boat was of a secondary nature, to give the *coup de grâce* to silenced vessels or to prevent Russian ships from breaking through the encircling Japanese; (3) that the prestige of the battleship has suffered enormously by reason of the slaughter on its decks and the easy destruction of the upper works of the "floating fortress." Striking confirmation of the last point is to be found in the reported results of the attack on the captured battleship *Orel*. She received a "terrible battering"; her hull shows forty gaping holes made by large shells, and many smaller apertures, while her upper works and decks were "riddled by shells, shot fragments, and splinters." From the main deck upward the condition of the vessel was "terrible to behold." It will be necessary to reconstruct her above the waterline, but the "*main armor belt is intact*," and her turret armor generally withstood the battering from shells, except in the case of two six-inch turrets. In short, the armor performed its duty fully under a terrific cannonade, but could not prevent the ship's being quickly put out of action as a fighting unit. It helped her to stay afloat, but she might as well have sunk after her upper works were shot to pieces, her crew practically reduced to submission and unable any longer to work their guns. In short, the damage quickly done to the battleship's unprotected portions more than offsets the advantage gained by having an armor belt.

This salient fact has made a deep impression upon Park Benjamin, the naval authority, who points out in the current *Independent* that although on the *Borodino* the crew was mainly disposed in eight separate armored turrets, this did not prevent the "wholesale slaughter of their crews, and prompt destruction of ammunition hoists and other vital mechanisms." He thinks that a still more frightful slaughter would have occurred in such vessels as our *Kentucky* and *Kearsarge*, "where most of the crew is massed in a single huge, weakly protected compartment." Mr. Benjamin wonders whether "any construction could be devised more certain to sacrifice life than this," and asks whether it is not time to heed the logic of events and seriously consider "whether ships which cost over five millions each, but which can be turned into slaughter-houses above water, and which a couple of hundred pounds of gun cotton can send plunging to the bottom, are, after all, the best sea weapons. . . ." Obviously they are not. Indeed, the torpedo boats at Port Arthur silenced the extreme advocates of the battleship, as Mr. Benjamin observes. Even a high English authority admits in *Brassey's Annual* the ease with which a battleship may be made valueless while her armor is uninjured. Meanwhile the vulnerability of the battleship to torpedo attack remains as true to-day as in 1864, when the monitor *Tecumseh* was sunk in Mobile Bay. Automatically closing watertight compartments and steel bottoms have added no security, as was shown by the loss of the *Hatsuse*, the *Yashima*, and the *Petropavlosk*. Four of the heavy Russian vessels are even reported to have "turned turtle" when one of the longitudinal compartments filled with water—so easily upset is the equilibrium of these topheavy structures.

Just what direction the reaction from battleships will take cannot, of course, be definitely foretold at present. Those who believe in a modernized monitor with the lowest possible freeboard will now have their say. Their great arguments are stability of the gun platform and smallness of target. Primarily, we believe, the armored cruiser will come into greater vogue. Admiral Rozhestvensky's report is significant. He lumps the twelve Japanese armored vessels—battleships and armored cruisers—together in one class. And well he may, for the latter are more easily manœuvred, carry less weight, and have a far superior speed. They have come out of the war with greater prestige than any other class of vessels, and this despite the loss of the *Rurik*. This vessel, be it noted, was silenced by two unarmored cruisers seven years older than their victim, and, being dismantled above—precisely like the *Orel*—was sunk by her own officers. If the armored cruiser is to take, for the moment, the place of the but little more expensive battleship, we must admit that there is small comfort in this for the advocate of peace, or for the taxpayer who is mulcted for these costly engines of war. At the same time it is some gain to have the Roosevelt theory of battleships wholly unsettled, and a naval enthusiast like Mr. Benjamin admitting that one of the lessons of the war is a smaller navy for the United States.

THE NEW TURN IN THE EQUITABLE.

The supremely important fact about the sudden turn in Equitable Life matters is that the company is saved from a situation the possible end of which was liquidation and disappearance of the Society from the financial field. This calamity—this "deep wound to our national prestige," as Mr. Cromwell had foreshadowed it—is averted. The management, whose continuance in office was incompatible with the company's continued efficiency, has resigned; reform of the grave abuses exposed by the Frick report is promised. So much is in sight towards the rehabilitation of the company.

For the complete restoration of the community's confidence in the Equitable, however, much more is necessary. This would be true even if so ideal a solution as repurchase of all its stock, by the Society itself, has been judged practicable and had been effected. Even then the closest scrutiny would have been bestowed on the influences which appeared to affect the policyholders' selection of trustees. Necessarily, this somewhat critical vigilance must be far more complete when ownership of the company has admittedly passed to a syndicate, one at least of whose members is engaged in large promoting enterprises and is a potent figure in the Wall Street market. The question universally asked, since Friday evening's announcement, is, What is to be the effect of Mr. Ryan's ownership on the future policy of the company?

We may conceive of a $4,000,000 payment for stock whose investment yield can never exceed some $3,000 per annum, being made from the highest motives of philanthropy, or, if a less lofty motive be inferred, from fear lest the state of things threatened by the Equitable's recent troubles might endanger other important enterprises dependent on public confidence. We shall certainly not insinuate that the gentlemen in the Ryan syndicate were actuated by any less worthy purpose. Their plan for trusteeing the stock, and for divesting the syndicate of voting power, is fair; and the promise that policyholders shall dictate a clear majority of the new directors is an important concession.

But the new owners of the Equitable must know that its future success de-

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pends, not on indefinite promises or pledges, but on raising the company's future methods and practices beyond the reach of any controversy whatever. This being true—and we think it will not be denied—it follows that the Ryan syndicate must place beyond question its permanent renunciation of control, direct or indirect, over any future action of the company. It is the perfectly well-known truth that transfer of Mr. Hyde's stock to any person or group of persons identified with Wall Street was bound to inspire suspicion; such suspicion, just or unjust, cannot be allayed except by the utmost publicity regarding the whole transaction. We do not consider the trusteeship announcement sufficient. The contract of purchase with Mr. Hyde, whether written or verbal, ought to be published in all its terms. If there be a written contract defining the duties and powers of the trustees, that should equally see the light of day.

Still more necessary, we think, is a full and conclusive statement by the syndicate as to its plans with regard to the stock control. Trustees may resign or die; directors and officers will change in the course of years, as they are likely to change in consequence of this new development. But the ownership may, so far as the public knows, rest permanently in the hands of the present purchasers and their heirs. That is to say, recurrence of precisely the situation which has so nearly wrecked the company will always be possible so long as the basis of the Equitable's financial structure is stock ownership. We should like to see, first, the formal opinion of eminent lawyers as to whether or not buying in of the stock by the Society itself is feasible under its present charter. If their opinion is adverse, we are strongly of the opinion that the question of such amendment to the charter by the Legislature as should make possible that purchase, ought to be taken up at once. All of these matters must, in fulfilment of his duty, be set forth in the Insurance Superintendent's report, which is expected to-day. Mr. Hendricks has the power to call for all contracts and documents to which we have referred, and to make them public. We think he will scarcely shirk this obvious duty.

We have thus far refrained from commenting on the selection of Mr. Paul Morton as the head of the reorganized Equitable. Our judgment of Mr. Morton's railway career has been too plainly expressed for our readers to expect our approval of his selection for this office. We have felt that its incumbent ought to be a man whose business record was beyond suspicion. That Mr. Morton is not such a man, is sufficiently proved by the fact that his career as railway manager is at this moment under investigation by the Government's lawyers. We regret the necessity of thus criticising any one chosen in so grave a crisis for so important a task of financial reconstruction; but it has long been evident that nothing but plain and honest speaking would be of any avail in the Equitable's dilemma. These very doubts about the new chairman of the Equitable; the fact that, whomsoever the trustees may choose as a directors' board, Mr. Morton is the syndicate's appointee, and is apparently expected to retain his office, add greatly to the force of what we have already said regarding the further requirements of the situation.

EXISTING PENSION SYSTEMS FOR COLLEGE PROFESSORS.

The establishment of the Carnegie Foundation, creating a retiring fund for professors in the various colleges, calls attention anew to the inadequacy and complex character of many of the existing systems. A retiring pension for professors similar to that employed in the army and navy and for the justices of our highest court has been in vogue at various universities for some time. Where no definite system had been formulated, it has been the custom in many cases to make provision for retiring professors, granting to them, after long and distinguished service, either one-half or two-thirds of the salary received upon resignation.

Princeton University has for many years made provision for its professors, but not systematically. Columbia University provides that any person in its service by appointment of the Corporation, who has held an office higher than the grade of assistant professor for fifteen years or upwards, and who is sixty-five years of age or over, may, at his own request, or upon the motion of the trustees, be retired from the date of the beginning of the next succeeding fiscal year, with a retiring allowance of one-half of his last annual salary. The Corporation retains the right to alter this rule, without, however, abridging the rights which individuals in the service of the University shall have acquired under it. In case the age of sixty-five has been reached by a professor who entered the service of the University at an equal grade at an unusually advanced age, the Corporation may, at its discretion, add a number of years, not exceeding fifteen, to his actual years of service, as a basis for his retiring allowance. The committee is required to satisfy itself that the person proposed for such pension is entitled to the distinction by reason of the length and character of his service to the University, and also by reason of eminence in his profession. There is no special fund from which such pensions are paid, but the charge is made against the general income of the University.

The rules of Harvard University show a careful study of all questions involved, and embody a graded system, recognizing length of service as the basis for a pension. This corresponds to that in use in our army and navy, and constitutes a proper service-pension. The rules provide that any person in the employ of the University who is sixty years of age, and who has held an office of the grade of an assistant professor or of a higher grade for twenty years, shall be entitled to a retiring allowance of twenty-sixtieths of his last annual salary in activity, and to an additional allowance of one-sixtieth of his last annual salary for each year of service in addition to twenty; but no retiring allowance shall exceed forty-sixtieths of his last annual salary while in full activity. In counting the years of additional service, an appointment with the title of tutor, instructor, lecturer, or assistant in a scientific establishment on an appointment not annual, may be added, at the discretion of the President and Fellows, to the years of service as assistant professor or in a higher grade. No person under sixty years of age shall be entitled to a retiring allowance, but the President and Fellows are empowered at their discretion to pay to any person who, while in the service of the University, has become incapable of discharging his duties by reason of permanent infirmity of mind or body, or has resigned before the age of sixty, an allowance not exceeding that which he would be entitled to receive if he had reached the age of sixty. No person who has been in the service of the University less than twenty years shall be entitled to a retiring allowance, but the authorities are empowered, in case a professor enters the service at an unusually advanced age, to add a certain number of years at their discretion (not exceeding ten) to his actual years of service, and such persons may be granted a retiring allowance as soon as their total services, including the constructive addition, reaches twenty years. A professor may be retired by the President and Fellows at the age of sixty-six years upon the retiring allowance to which he is entitled. Years of absence upon leave are to be counted as years of active service. The rules may be altered, without, however, abridging the rights which individuals shall have acquired under them. The notable features in these rules are a pension graded according to length of service, and the privilege of a voluntary retirement at the age of sixty years.

The University of Toronto has a system of compulsory contribution on the part of the professor, to constitute a retiring fund. The interest upon this fund is compounded semi-annually at the rate of 6 per cent. per annum, and the entire sum is given to the professor upon retirement, or to his heirs in case of his death. In order to meet in part

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this tax upon the income of the professors, salaries were proportionately somewhat increased. The professor receiving a salary of one thousand dollars contributes 5 per cent. of his salary to this fund; between one thousand and eighteen hundred dollars, 7½ per cent.; between eighteen hundred and twenty-five hundred, 10 per cent.; between twenty-five hundred and thirty-two hundred dollars, 15 per cent.; and over thirty-two hundred dollars, 20 per cent. This system is practically that of the savings-bank. The University authorities become the custodian of a certain part of the professor's salary, and he is necessarily deprived of the use of his property and the possibility of its wise increase. It does not appear that any provision is made for an addition to this sum by gift from the University. There is no rule of compulsory retirement, and there is no fixed date for retirement.

McGill University has no statute governing the pensioning of professors. There is, however, a pension fund at the disposal of the Board of Trustees. On the recent resignation of two professors after forty-six and thirty-one years' tenure of their respective chairs, they were granted a retiring allowance for life. No contribution, compulsory or otherwise, is made by the members of the staff to the pension fund, which consists of an endowment established by the munificence of three members of the Board of Trustees.

The system at Cornell University embodies the onerous and complex features of the University of Toronto, but exhibits a certain improvement in that the University makes a positive contribution to the sum contributed by the individual professors. The statute fixes a graded sum which every professor must contribute in two semi-annual payments, and which may begin at the age of thirty. This sum at thirty years of age is $33, at forty $53, at fifty $97, at fifty-nine (the latest date at which a professor can avail himself of this privilege), $208. It is assumed that the amount of the contribution of the professor will be one-fourth of the amount of his ultimate pension. The total pension payment to each professor is fifteen hundred dollars per annum, after reaching the age of seventy. No provision is made for the voluntary retirement of the professor before this age, nor for his enjoyment of any pension before that date. There is also no provision for teachers of lower grades; neither is a definite period of service in the University designated as preliminary to the enjoyment of a pension. In case a professor should die before reaching the age of seventy, his contributions, compounded semi-annually at 3 per cent., are returned to his family. This system is defective in that it fails to make general provision for all professors, and from the fact that in a majority of instances the professor will fail to receive any return from his compulsory contribution.

According to the tables of mortality, the prospect of life at the age of thirty is a trifle over thirty-four years; at forty, twenty-seven years; at fifty, twenty years; at fifty-nine, slightly above fourteen years. Any insurance entered upon on these terms up to fifty years will necessarily involve loss on the part of the professor in a majority of cases. If, however, the annual tax at thirty years be accumulated at 5 per cent., this sum will amount at seventy to $4,217, thus being sufficient of itself to discharge the pension for three years. If entered upon at forty years of age, the sum will reach $3,720; at fifty years of age, $3,399; at fifty-nine years of age, $3,180. In case of death at seventy before entering upon the enjoyment of a pension, the amount returned at 3 per cent. would involve a loss to the family of $1,643, if repaid at the lower rate of interest. This assumes that the University receives 5 per cent. upon its investments, which is less than its actual returns reported at the present time. After thirty years of insurance, there would be a similar loss of $1,106; after twenty years, of $679. A sum corresponding to the tax fixed by the University, if invested similarly in a life annuity, would protect for the entire period of the life of the individual and secure a definite payment at the end. The professor, then, contributes a sum sufficient to meet his own pension for the two or three critical years after reaching the age of seventy, and the University assumes no responsibility until this sum is exhausted. The real pension thus begins at seventy-three. An irksome tax and complex bookkeeping would in this case be avoided, and a better result reached, if a bona-fide pension of one thousand dollars were paid by the University to each professor on reaching the age of seventy.

Yale University provides a pension for any professor or assistant professor who has served for twenty-five years and has reached the age of sixty-five. He may then be retired at his own request with a retiring allowance of one-half his last annual salary. In the case of any person of the age of sixty-five who entered the service of the University at an unusually advanced age, the Corporation may, at its discretion, add a number of years (not exceeding fifteen) to his actual years of service as a basis for granting him a retiring allowance. This act, which was passed in June, 1896, was amended in 1903, so that it provided for the compulsory retirement of all University instructors at the age of sixty-eight, except in individual cases where, by special vote, the Corporation might determine otherwise.

These various systems differ as to the age at which the professor may be retired, the period of preliminary service requisite, and the voluntary or compulsory nature of his retirement, and also respecting the right of assistant professors to enjoy a pension. They will undoubtedly be harmonized and made uniform by the Trustees of the Carnegie Foundation. Less attention has been paid to that feature of the Foundation which requires that it shall make provision for the widows and families of "the said teachers." The form in which to make this provision, which is in effect in most of the German universities, will present a question not previously settled in our American university system.

M. DELCASSÉ'S RETIREMENT.

In 1889 Théophile Delcassé, journalist, was returned from the *arrondissement* of Foix in the Pyrenees. He received a vote of 10,691, which gave him a comfortable majority over his Royalist opponent, who received, however, 7,986 votes. For sixteen years, then, M. Delcassé has been in national politics, always representing Foix in the Chamber of Deputies. In the last general election, April, 1902, his constituency gave him 13,735 votes against 2,648 polled for a Socialist candidate and 1,871 for a Nationalist. This dry comparison of electoral figures is not without weight. It recalls that, when M. Delcassé first entered the Palais Bourbon as a Deputy, the Republic was on its defence, royalism still a menace, the "man on horseback," Boulanger, not yet exposed in his true emptiness. Thirteen years later, in the nation as in the historic district of Foix, Republicanism had become firmly established, and the Opposition had, from a compact body of Royalists, reduced itself to scattering and innocuous groups of violent Socialists and Nationalist malcontents. In this change M. Delcassé has played a conspicuous part. He has rehabilitated France before the nations. Her voice is again potent in international councils. He has given to a rather despondent loyalty grounds for exultation. Less sensational than M. Hanotaux's contribution, the Franco-Russian alliance, M. Delcassé's legacy of good will with Italy and England is more permanently valuable, and this should especially be said when the check in Morocco and a trifling setback in the matter of the Abyssinian railway give to an administration remarkably successful in the main a valedictory impression of failure.

M. Delcassé, like his great associate, the late Waldeck-Rousseau, was peculiarly fitted for the work of Republican defence. Both were avowed disciples of the great Republican, Gambetta. Delcassé first attracted the attention of the Government by his articles in Gambetta's paper, the *République Française*, for which in 1887, he received the ribbon of the Legion—from a Rouvier Ministry, we believe. Accepting a Co-

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lonial under-secretaryship under Ribot in 1893, he soon saw that the subordinate position of the Colonial Office, then a dependency of the Naval Ministry, prevented effective work, and it was chiefly at his instance that several years later Casimir Périer's Administration created the Colonial Ministry. As Colonial Under-Secretary and then as Secretary, M. Delcassé pushed vigorously the plan of exploratory and military expeditions in the Niger basin, thus beginning that delimitation of Northern and Western Africa which later he hoped to perfect through the Anglo-French convention.

When Moderate Republicanism began to go stale—a process completed under Méline—M. Delcassé became a private member again and associated himself with the Radicals. It was in 1897 that, speaking as a private member, he outlined that great plan of compromise which was to end the secular animosity between Great Britain and France. In an analysis of all the possible cases of collision, he tried to demonstrate that each and all admitted of honorable arbitration. When a year later he replaced Gabriel Hanotaux in the Foreign Office, this conciliatory attitude towards England was put to the severest of tests. Hanotaux was retired, wearing gracefully the laurels of Dunkerque and Cronstadt; Delcassé was pitchforked into the Fashoda affair. For the Marchand fiasco he had made himself responsible when Colonial Secretary. He shouldered the responsibility and resultant unpopularity like a man, explaining practically that the Marchand mission had been in the nature of a feeler. It had taken its chance and had lost. This was sensible but most unpalatable doctrine, and the people have never yet fully forgiven M. Delcassé the humiliation of Fashoda. Before the world, however, he won the distinction of frankly avowing a bad miscalculation, and of facing a difficult issue of national honor without selfishness or sentimentalism. It was his diplomatic baptism of fire.

In the seven years that have elapsed since then, M. Delcassé's successes have been too numerous to admit of rapid enumeration, too well known to require especial comment. One need only recall the remarkable series of royal visits to Paris—Hanotaux himself was no more noteworthy as an exhibitor of crowned heads—the arbitration treaties with England and Italy, and more especially the Anglo-French *entente*, which adjusted, perhaps, a wider range of contested points, considered both geographically and numerically, than any similar document since diplomacy began. Here it should be noted that, whatever the outcome of the Morocco affair, the general value of the Anglo-French Agreement stands unimpaired. It has removed from international politics at least three sources of irritation—in the Sudan, in Newfoundland, and in the Morocco hinterland—and it has pointed the way for a rational and humane settlement of other outstanding disputes.

Into the merits of M. Delcassé's contest with the German Foreign Office we can go only very summarily. M. Jaurès last April roundly scored the Foreign Minister for his failure to consult Germany throughout the Moroccan negotiations. This rebuke, which was promptly followed by M. Delcassé's resignation, was later retracted in part. But recently M. Jaurès filed notice of another interpellation on the matter, only to withdraw it after the Cabinet meeting at which M. Delcassé offered his definitive resignation. We judge, then, that the attack upon him for failure to inform Germany of his Moroccan intentions was to have been renewed, and we feel that this was a pretext, and not a particularly fair one, to force his retirement from the Cabinet. For obviously no maladroitness of his own, but circumstances, have thwarted the Moroccan plan. To have consulted Germany in the first instance would have been to invite a check at the outset. She never would have assented either to French preponderancy or to an Anglo-French condominium. Against a resolute trouble-maker there is no peaceful recourse, and M. Delcassé's chagrin is due merely to the fact that, since the Russian reverses, Germany feels free to play that rôle of meddler which a few years ago would have been too dangerous.

The real reason for M. Delcassé's retirement seems to be insubordination, or what Premier Rouvier regards as such. It has been known that the Prime Minister was exercising a supervision to which the veteran Foreign Secretary was unaccustomed, and which he by no means relished. Not improbably, too, M. Rouvier has resented the general conviction that M. Delcassé was indispensable. Certain business houses, under such circumstances, give the indispensable officer a prolonged vacation. Whatever be the immediate cause of M. Delcassé's resignation, it is most regrettable. If personal infirmities of temper may have played some part in the event, there is all the more reason for recalling the great services he has rendered to France and to the world, and for hoping that his rare abilities may again find a field in international politics. Finally, no one should be oblivious to the pathos of a self-abnegating diplomatic career which began with Fashoda and now is rudely broken by the German mission to Fez.

"SATURNALIA" AND MUSEUM LOANS.

The decision in favor of the Metropolitan Museum, in the Biondi case, brings museum loans for the first time under judicial interpretation, and raises, besides, certain interesting questions in museum management. The contest was waged about the colossal bronze group entitled "Saturnalia," for which the sculptor Biondi had received a Grand Prix at Paris. It represented, with a technical skill of which the prize is sufficient evidence, a reeling group of degenerate Romans, men and women, returning from a debauch. The subject, which to be at all acceptable required all the mitigations of art, is rendered doubly offensive by the large scale of the composition and by an aggressively realistic treatment. The work is not immoral—indeed, it might afford a text for a homily *de inebrietate;* but it is disgusting to all except such realists as admit no issue of taste whatever.

A bronze group consisting of many figures and some thirty-odd feet long, cannot be set up in the average genteel residence. In fact, "Saturnalia" was frankly what the French call a "machine," an object primarily to create its sensation in a public exhibition, and, if possible, to be sold to the only possible customer, a public museum. In pursuance of this latter end, Signor Biondi sent "Saturnalia" to America, the land of big things, and during the Buffalo Exhibition the group graced the side-show, "Venice in America," at the closing of which it became homeless. But Signor Biondi's representatives had already entered into correspondence with Gen. Cesnola, the late Director of the Metropolitan Museum, with a view to first lending, and if practicable selling, "Saturnalia" to that institution or elsewhere. The loan Gen. Cesnola accepted gladly, engaging to exhibit the group for a year, signing the customary receipt, and assuming Signor Biondi's bond at the Customs. To the idea of purchase Gen. Cesnola also lent a kindly ear. Letters offered in evidence show plainly that, had he dared, he would have recommended the purchase of "Saturnalia" by the Museum; that, in fact, he considered himself, in a fashion, Signor Biondi's business agent in America. For this strange infatuation and this equivocal agency no explanation has ever been offered. At a private view, the trustees of the Museum decided that it was inexpedient to exhibit the group. "Saturnalia" went to the cellar, Signor Biondi sued for breach of what he held was a contract to exhibit his work, and for damage to his artistic reputation; Gen. Cesnola accepted placidly a reversal of his judgment which was virtually a reprimand.

In justice to Signor Biondi, it should be said that he has met with a cruel and unmerited disappointment, and on all personal grounds deserves sympathy. It is no comfortable position for a sculptor to find that he possesses in a distant land some tons of bronze that nobody wants, and Signor Biondi had no reason to doubt either Gen. Cesnola's good will or authority over Museum matters. It

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may be granted that the Italian sculptor thought, and with good reason, that he had a contract by which "Saturnalia" must stand a year in the first museum of America. The court, however, naturally regarded the matter impersonally, and went straight to the point, Was there or was there not a contract to exhibit? and, granting that a *prima-facie* contract existed, had the Director of the Museum the authority to make it binding upon his trustees? On both scores the court ruled in the negative, opining that whatever papers Signor Biondi held from the Director of the Museum were merely in the nature of a receipt for the group, and not a contract to exhibit it. In equity, however, Judge Leventritt found that (since through the misunderstanding "Saturnalia" had outstayed the year allowed by the Customs, and could remain in America only on payment ot substantial duties), the Museum should, if desired, deliver the bronze to the artist in Italy at its own cost.

As for the question of authority, the decision rests upon the simple grounds that the servant is not greater than his lord. The governing body of a corporation has the right to supervise, or even to reverse, the actions of its employees. It should be added, however, that to reverse the policy of a museum director in a matter of any moment is to vote no confidence in him, and ordinarily should be interpreted as a request for his resignation. As a rule, the director must be the actual executive of a museum; but the board, or ministry, or final authority of any sort does not, by habitually delegating its powers, abdicate them, or waive its right of exercising them directly.

More novel is Justice Leventritt's characterization of the transaction between a museum and the lender of a work of art. He failed to find that any contract existed: "There was expressed only a willingness on the part of the Museum that the plaintiff might have the right to exhibit his group, revocable at the will of either party." In an earlier discussion of the Biondi case, we took the ground that, in a museum loan, the elements of mutual consideration and advantage are so obscure that the transaction can hardly be reduced to the terms of a commercial contract. To have one's pictures stored and insured for a certain period is an advantage calculable in cash, but the enhancement of value they may receive through being approved by a famous museum cannot be computed, nor can the value to a museum of a fine picture transiently on its walls. In other words, the transaction, by common sense, and now by legal precedent, seems to fall into a rather vague category of courtesy agreements. It was perhaps below the dignity of the court to cite the analogy, say, of the free checking-office at the entrance of the Museum, where, in exchange for your walking-stick, you receive a check. That receipt does not bind the custodian to put your stick in any particular compartment. It merely engages that on demand you shall get it back. Such a parallel brings into pleasing correlation the creators of gigantic groups like "Saturnalia," the wealthy connoisseurs of the city, and the humblest visitor.

THE WHISTLER EXHIBITION AT THE ÉCOLE DES BEAUX-ARTS.

PARIS, May, 1905.

It is the turn of Paris to honor the memory of Whistler, and a memorial exhibition of his work, opened with all form and ceremony by the Minister of Fine Arts, is now being held at the École des Beaux-Arts. As a sequel to the recent show in London, it gives an admirable opportunity for the further study of Whistler and his art. The International Society—his society—succeeded in getting together a wonderful collection of many of his finest paintings, as well as an almost exhaustive series of his prints, and the organizers of the French show have profited by their labors. Many of the pictures that were in London have been transferred to Paris, but there are also many that were not in London, so that the new show is something more than a mere repetition of the exhibition just held on the other side of the Channel.

Comparison, it must be confessed, is by no means in favor of Paris, for the Beaux-Arts has not the advantages of the New Gallery when it comes to arranging and hanging pictures and prints. The space is limited to one large room upstairs, and even this is so small in proportion to the quantity of work shown that it has had to be divided into alcoves, while the hall downstairs on either side of the great stairway has had to be used for the etchings. There is no such striking effect on entering as there was at London in the white-draped court reserved for the royal collection of prints; nor, in the hall above, broken up into its several divisions; is there the distinction of that one large room in London with its array of masterpieces. The arrangement of the new galleries at the Louvre has proved, if proof were needed after Dresden and so many other Continental museums, what a serious mistake this system of alcoves is, and how, seen in them, even the work of the master must suffer. To make matters worse, the lighting of the big hall at the Beaux-Arts is very poor, and there are certain Whistlers that never, at any hour, have I managed to see properly, if at all. Moreover, for a background to the paintings and prints alike, choice has been made of a gray which, in a gallery with a top light tempered by the velarium Whistler always insisted upon, might be right enough, but which here, where there is only a side light and an unfriendly one at that, is worse than ineffective. As M. Jacques Blanche pointed out to a French critic, it seems to absorb whatever light there is, and the pictures are left dull and colorless. On it the mystery passes from the nocturnes; and a picture like the "Miss Alexander," so triumphant where it hung at the end of the large room at the New Gallery, hardly tells. I thought the strong green background in London ill-advised, but even the effect of the green there was preferable to that of the gray in the light of the Beaux-Arts Gallery.

A more serious mistake has been to include too much in the collection. Where space is limited, it is best to recognize the fact, and to show in it no more than can be shown well. It would have been a gain to the larger paintings if fewer small ones, fewer little pastels and water-colors, had been scattered among them, even if, as a result, the number of contributions from a prominent American collector and from Whistler's estate had been reduced. The gain would have been still greater if much of the unfinished work exhibited had been left out altogether. It is interesting, of course, to see an artist's studies and sketches, but I am referring more particularly to the pictures that, evidently, Whistler either had not time or never had the intention to finish. If space at the Beaux-Arts were unlimited, it would matter less; but, under the circumstances, unfinished work might easily have been spared to give more room to the finished, or to have warranted greater effort in obtaining a still larger number of the more important canvases, many of which are now missing. There is an impression among people who know nothing of Whistler's art, and care less, that he could not finish a picture—that Sir Edward Poynter was right, that he was the "idle apprentice" who never mastered his trade as a student, never, throughout his life, learned the secret of application. When one considers the greatness and scope of his accomplishment, it is all the more regrettable, all the more unnecessary, that anything should be done to add to this impression just at the moment when the world—what with Boston, and London, and now Paris—is given the first opportunity to see and study and begin to appreciate his work.

It has been stated that the Paris collection has the inestimable value of containing exactly those things which Whistler himself, foreseeing a memorial exhibition, planned that it should contain. It is extraordinary that Whistler, who during his life was never willing to show his work until it was finished—until all traces of how it was done had disappeared from it—who rarely would let a canvas leave his studio, if he could help it, until it had ripened and mellowed with time, should have been eager to be represented after his death by paintings as entirely unfinished as are many of those exhibited. It was a desire in contradiction to his life-long theories. Anyway, the collection in London, where the unfinished picture was rare, seemed, as tribute to his genius, far more in accord with his own practice. Of the two shows, it is in the one organized by the International Society that greater discrimination in the choice of the paintings and their arrangement was shown.

I do not intend to suggest that there are not many things in Paris I should have been glad to see in London. If at the Beaux-Arts the "Carlyle"—there is a report that it is to appear before the exhibition closes—the "Mrs. Huth," the "Mr. Leyland," the "Fur Jacket," the "Irving as Philip," the "M. Duret," the "Symphony in White, No. iii.," the upright "Valparaiso," the smaller "Blue and Silver" of Battersea Bridge, and several other

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of the most perfect nocturnes are absent; on the other hand, London did not show, as Paris does, "The Music Room," the "Princesse du Pays de Porcelaine," the "Rosa Corder," the "Little White Girl, Symphony in White, No. ii.," the "Thames in Ice," the "Falling Rocket," that blinded Ruskin and made him forget his manners, and some of the other no less perfect nocturnes. For certain phases of Whistler's art, indeed, the collection at the Beaux-Arts supplements the collection at the New Gallery, as if Whistler had also foreseen exactly what the English memorial exhibition would and would not contain. Mr. Swinburne has not sent over his "Mère Gérard," but from Messrs. Colnaghi comes another though less important study of the same old woman belonging to the same period, and, from Mr. Avery, Whistler's portrait of himself in large hat, and from M. Drouet, his old friend, a small "Head of an Old Man, Smoking," that are further confirmations of how deeply he was influenced by the study of the old masters, and how much at home he must have been in the Louvre, despised by the young Romanticists of a previous generation, and by the young Impressionists of his own. "A Rembrandt," I heard one enthusiast describe the head of the old man. Not quite a Rembrandt, however, but an uncommonly strong and learned piece of work for a student: a little picture that should be preserved in some collection of Whistler's paintings, that it might explain how wholly his later broader methods were based upon sound knowledge and vigorous training, and not, as in Poynter's immortal saying, upon idleness and incapacity.

It is interesting to see, not only the "Piano Picture," which was in London, but, with it, "The Music Room," which was not there—that amazing study of detail a Pre-Raphaelite might have envied, rendered with a delicacy, a feeling for harmony and tone, that not the most accomplished Pre-Raphaelite, in his most accomplished moment, ever equalled. I know of nothing among the Dutch masters as perfect in tone as this interior. I know of nothing anywhere as lovely as the painting of the curtain, with its gay pattern reflected in the mirror, nothing as subtle as the way the difference between the curtain itself and its reflection is suggested. It is a well-known picture of Whistler's, and may seem to call for no further description, so often has it been described; but to see it again is to wonder again at its beauty, at the ease and speed with which Whistler, the student, developed into Whistler, the master. How these early pictures, when they were painted, failed to be recognized as the masterpieces they are, it is to us to-day almost impossible to understand.

The regret in London was that there should be so little of what has been called his Japanese period—the period, rather, when his immense interest in, and appreciation of, Japanese art made itself felt in his selection of subjects and even in his design and color scheme. The regret in my own case was not so poignant, for this is the period which appeals to me personally, perhaps, the least keenly; and if any one had to be sacrificed, this is the period I would part with first. It has its very great importance, however, both because of its influence on Whistler himself, and because he then displayed certain qualities which, as he never tried for them in a later stage of development, people who talk a great deal about his work without knowing it have persistently refused to give him credit for. They will have a new idea of his scope and his powers if they go now to the Beaux-Arts, where they will find "Rose and Silver," "La Princesse du Pays de Porcelaine," the picture that at last is to be restored to the framing he designed for it when he decorated the Peacock Room; the "Caprice in Purple and Gold—the Gold Screen," with its vivid, sonorous color and minutely carried-out scheme of decoration; the "Variations in Flesh Color and Green—the Balcony," even stronger in color, even more deliberately decorative in pattern. Of other periods and other methods, Paris may show much, but they were equally well, if not better, represented in London.

Of the great portraits, the "Mother" is here, and also "The White Girl," the "Sarasate," the "Rosa Corder," the two "Miss Alexanders." But in important portraits the London collection was richer. There is, besides, the "Master Smith of Lyme Regis," but hung in a corner where it might be easily passed over. And there are "L'Andalouse," the fine full-length already seen at the Paris Exhibition of 1900; a portrait of Mrs. Whistler, "Harmony in Red-Lamplight," of which I should not venture to speak until I had seen it in a better light; the portrait of the artist himself, the half-length belonging to Mr. George Vanderbilt; and the portrait of Mr. Vanderbilt, which must come as a disappointment to those who remember it in a previous stage while it was still in the studio. The catalogue explains that it is the last of Whistler's large, full-length portraits, a fact which accounts for its having unfortunately been left so far from finished. Another of the portraits painted during his last years and left in the same unfinished condition is the "Miss Kinsella," which was in London, and is, in every way, in its equally unfinished state, a far more beautiful example of his later period. The pity is that there could not be one collection somewhere to show the whole series of his great portraits. As it is, the two of Lady Meux and the "Yellow Buskin" have had no place either in London or in Paris.

With the nocturnes, it is as with the portraits: if many beautiful ones are omitted, many as lovely are hung. The "Crépuscule—Valparaiso" has been lent to Paris, as it was to London, and none in the entire series can surpass it. The wonderful sky, with its rifts of pale, luminous clouds, the arrangement of the boats, so decorative and yet, you feel, so true; the harmony throughout, the perfect tone and unity, make it, like "The Music Room," a picture to which you return again and again with renewed wonder and delight. Some of the marines, painted afterwards and now hanging near it, seem by comparison as flat and empty as a picture by Whistler could seem—though, no sooner have I written this than I ask myself if it is not a statement calling for qualification, and if the fault—noted always in pictures I had not seen before—does not lie with the light and the background. However that may be, the light, as it falls from the high windows on one side only of the gallery, cannot destroy the poetry and charm of the exquisite "Nocturne, Battersea," belonging to Mr. Vanderbilt—out of the clear night the London barges emerging, shadowy and unsubstantial, in a long row moored to the near shore, their tall masts, with sails furled, forming one succession of graceful lines in the foreground, and yielding to the mere magic of light all the pictorial poetry of a repeated pattern; or the "Nocturne—Blue and Silver—Battersea Reach," belonging to Mr. Freer—a night of mists and mystery, ghostlike sails, one far beyond the other, lights like stars burning in the distance. In both these cases I have named the owners of the pictures, for the simple reason that, by the titles Whistler gave to his paintings, they are at times not to be identified with any certainty. He had a way of repeating the same titles, to the endless confusion of the cataloguer, who, if he does not trace them now, will have eventually to face a task to which the cataloguing of the Primitives will be child's play. I doubt if any one as yet is quite sure of the number of the harmonies in Blue and Silver, of the number of Nocturnes at Battersea, for instance. But the catalogue prepared by the International Society for the London exhibition, and now the Paris catalogue made under the supervision of M. Bénédite, have helped to smooth the way for [illegible]nt and collector of the future. Many examples of the work of Whistler's later years come from the executor of his estate, and, as might be expected, a no small proportion of these is among the unfinished things—the things he was at work on, or had on hand, when he died. One, probably the last of all, begun a very short time before his death, "Dorothy Seton: A Daughter of Eve," the bust of a girl, with glorious hair, who holds an apple in her hand, is enough to prove, even to his enemies, how little age and illness had weakened his powers, how much was lost to the world by his death.

To turn to the prints is to find that in this section there is no comparison possible between the London and Paris exhibitions, so much more complete was the series in London. The lithographs have an alcove to themselves in the great hall above. The series is incomplete, like that of the etchings. The different periods are well represented. There are examples of Whistler's work in line, in wash, and in color. But the omissions are numerous. There are numerous pastels—eloquent little impressions of Venice, the little Tanagra-like draped nudes, on brown paper—notes and little more, for Whistler believed in respecting the limitations of his medium, and never attempted to rival the effects of oil and water-color with pastel. There are numerous water-colors—portraits, little seas (and no one could suggest as he did all the feeling and spaciousness of the sea in a few simple washes), dainty little interiors, the little shops he never wearied of; these, too, restrained in size, water-color for him, no less than pastel, carrying with it its obligations. And there are drawings, in pencil, in sepia, in chalk; among them an amusing sketch of peasants dating back to those early days when, as a gay student from the Quartier, he journeyed down the

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Rhine; sketches by the way from one of the last sad voyages of all, when, old and broken in health, he went to Corsica; and, as links between these two periods, so remote from each other, notes and memoranda mostly for his pictures. They are all of interest for so many reasons that, once more before them, I found myself regretting the want of space and the poor lighting at the Beaux-Arts.

The catalogue follows the model which Whistler adopted, or rather invented, and adhered to so faithfully himself. For it, M. Bénédite, Conservateur of the Luxembourg, has written a short introduction, stating briefly the main facts, events, and dates in Whistler's life. The pictures are catalogued chronologically to a certain extent, the portraits together, and then the nocturnes. They are carefully described, their measurements stated, the names of their owners mentioned, the dates or approximate dates sometimes given, sometimes not. It is no easy task to settle the dates of Whistler's pictures in most cases, and it may be that the compilers of the International Catalogue, so severely criticised in certain quarters for their disregard of dates, will, in the fine illustrated edition, be the first to undertake it. In cataloguing the prints, there has been no chance or necessity to do anything save supply the approved references, but no more efficient guide could be provided for the collector and compiler of the future.

Whether still another Whistler show will be held in Berlin, as rumor says, or elsewhere, I am not sure. N. N.

CLASSICAL STUDIES IN ROME.—I.

ROME, April 30, 1905.

The last ten or fifteen years have seen in the United States a decided though gradual change in the graduate study of the classical languages. Before that time no advanced course in Greek and Latin was considered complete without at least a year spent at a German university, and many Americans went to Germany to become candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, immediately after graduation. Although this has not been a matter of actual necessity since the foundation of the Johns Hopkins University, it is needless to say that the adequate equipment of American institutions for graduate training and research has been accomplished only within comparatively recent years. These above-mentioned students often went to Greece or to Italy on vacation tours, but they rarely made any systematic attempt to become acquainted with the countries where the languages and civilizations which they were studying lived and flourished.

The changes to which I referred above have been two in number. In the first place, Americans are becoming more and more inclined to work for their doctor's degree in an American university, though they usually make an endeavor, either before or after attaining the second degree, to spend a year or more in Europe. One reason is that a few American classical faculties have earned such reputations that they can compete successfully with those of Europe, both in efficiency of instruction and in opportunities for research. On the other hand, it must be admitted that practical considerations have also been taken into account. No American university has attracted graduates in considerable numbers without offering stipends for study in residence, and in most cases the number of students does not greatly exceed that of the stipends. But another reason, fully as important, is that the holder of an American degree has usually a much better chance of securing a desirable position as teacher than his fellow trained abroad. Prominent members of American faculties have naturally a paramount influence in filling vacant posts, and just as naturally they usually exert this influence for the benefit of their own men.

I shall return later to the question whether this new habit of staying at home be of advantage to American education. Here I may merely point out in passing that, inasmuch as American graduate courses leading to the doctorate in philosophy are a close imitation of the German plan, with its theses and oral examinations, it is not likely that a new spirit has been introduced directly into graduate, or indirectly into undergraduate, studies by the aforesaid change. It would be out of place to discuss the merits of the German scheme of higher education. Still, it is not antecedently probable that the system of one peculiar people, resulting from a long course of development and from particular racial and historical conditions, should be an entirely good thing for a nationality of different character, institutions, and environment. My more immediate concern is with the second of the above changes in the conditions of American classical study; namely, that it is now considered more essential for the student to pass the time of his European residence in Greece and Italy than in Germany. I proceed, therefore, to give an account of the opportunities offered in Rome for the training of classical scholars.

The most important schools now maintained by foreign Governments are the German, French, British, and American. Other nations support similar institutions; and even the South American countries, which North Americans are too apt to regard as backward in educational matters, are not without their representation. But these four being the only ones with which the student from the United States is likely to become acquainted, I shall restrict myself to them, except that the excellent facilities offered by the University of Rome deserve an important place in such a review. As is likely to be the case in modern foundations for education and research, the German School in Rome is the oldest and most completely organized. The institution, known as Das Archaeologische Institut, was founded in 1829 by the Crown Prince Frederick of Prussia, afterwards Frederick William IV. Though this is a hard thing to realize now, it was at first, in its spirit and object, so entirely apart from the trend of the classical scholarship of that epoch that it obtained no recognition whatever from the Akademie der Wissenschaften at Berlin. To be sure, after its founder came to the throne of Prussia in 1840 as Frederick William IV., it did not fail to receive his wise and liberal patronage; but it remained a private enterprise until immediately after the Franco-Prussian war. In fact, the order of the King of Prussia which made the institute a part of the Academy, was dated from Versailles, March 2, 1871. In 1874 it was changed into an Institute of the German Empire, and a branch of it was established at Athens.

The present statutes of the School date from 1874. They call for four secretaries, two for the Roman Institute and two for the Athenian, who are nominated by and responsible to a body known as the Central Direction in Berlin, whose members, serving as officers of the Empire, are scholars of special knowledge in the province of classical archæology. The secretaries are professors as well as officers of administration, the two posts in the Roman School now being filled by those eminent archæologists, Professors Petersen and Hülsen. During the months from November to April they are expected to provide for public lectures, not necessarily by themselves, every other week. They personally give regular courses of lectures in the presence of the monuments and in the museums for the benefit of German students sojourning in Rome. The results of their own research and that of their students are published, if not in books, either in the *Jahrbuch des Archaeologischen Instituts* or in the *Mittheilungen des Römischen Instituts*. There is a special clause in the statutes which provides that the privileges of the Institute shall be as far as possible opened to the public.

The programme of the present year may serve as an example of the work that is regularly done. The First Secretary, Professor Petersen, is lecturing on Greco-Roman art. The Second Secretary, Professor Hülsen, delivered before Christmas about fifteen lectures on the topography and history of Ancient Rome, a course to which students from the American School are always admitted by a special arrangement. Professor Mau, also attached to the Institute, will lecture as usual on Pompeii, in the presence of the ruins, to the American School in May, and to German students in July. This latter course is for the special benefit of German classical teachers who wish to devote their summer months to study. Of the students in regular attendance during the academic year, four, who must have attained the doctor's degree at a German university or passed the State examination for teachers, receive stipends from the Government. There is also an annual scholarship in Christian archæology.

To the carefully systematized German Institute, the French School furnishes an instructive and characteristic contrast. It is not a regularly organized institution in itself, nor is it a part of one. It has no officers except Monsignor Duchesne, the director. But, at the same time, it is unquestionably one of the most profitable schools in Rome. It occupies beautiful apartments in the top story of the famous Farnese Palace, now the property of the French Government and the residence of the French Embassy. Its library is large and well selected. Six students come to it every year on liberal stipends, having received previously a thorough training either at the École Normale Supérieure, the École des Hautes-Études, or the École des Chartes. They are recommended by the heads of these institutions to the Minister of Public Instruction, in whom resides the nominating power. They are assumed to be competent to conduct researches in some branch of study connected with the literature, archæology, or history of Rome or Italy,

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it matters not at what period. In fact, although the regulations of the British School are equally liberal, the studies of the French School are less than any other restricted to ancient times. A glance at any volumes of the *Mélanges d'Archéologie et d'Histoire*, their official publication, is enough to show the exceptionally wide range which they cover.

The British School is of all the most recent foundation, having been formally opened in April, 1901, but has already taken high rank on account of the excellence of the work done by its officers and students. Especially may be mentioned the archæological researches of Mr. Rushforth, formerly its director, into the history of the church known as Santa Maria Antiqua, and those of Mr. Ashby, formerly a student, and now vice-director, into the history and topography of the Campagna. The plan of this institution is admirable in its scope and comprehensiveness. The first of its statutes provides that "the School shall be, in the most comprehensive sense, a School of Roman and Italian Studies. It shall promote the study of Roman and of Greek and Greco-Roman archæology in all its departments, including palæography. Every period of the language and literature, antiquities, art, and history of Rome and Italy shall be considered as coming within the province of the School." It is stated, moreover, that "the School shall be also a centre at which information can be obtained and books consulted by British travellers pursuing serious objects in Italy." At present the director and vice-director, Messrs. Stuart-Jones and Ashby, devote themselves to advising their students, and to their own researches; but it is hoped that provisions will shortly be made for regular courses of lectures. The British School still remains a private foundation, although its sister college at Athens has received a Government grant. Its official publication is entitled "Papers of the British School at Rome."

The American School of Classical Studies in Rome was founded in 1895 by the Archæological Institute of America, which already had under its direction the American School at Athens. It is supported by private endowment, and also by contributions from twenty-two American colleges and universities, whose accredited students are in consequence allowed its privileges free of charge. Three fellowships, usually awarded by competitive examination, have been provided for, two for classical studies and one for Christian archæology. Mr. Richard Norton has been director since 1899, and is assisted by an annual professor of the Latin language and literature sent every year by one of the contributing colleges. In addition to these, Mr. H. F. De Cou has been in permanent residence for some years as secretary and instructor in Greek archæology. Courses of lectures are given on Topography, Greek and Roman Sculpture, Greek and Roman Epigraphy, and Classical Archæology, and also on other subjects chosen by the annual professors. The *American Journal of Archæology* is open to the officers and students for the publication of their research.*

I allow this institution to speak for itself as to its scope and object. Number 1 of its statutes reads as follows:

"The School shall be called The American School of Classical Studies in Rome. Its object shall be to promote the study of Classical Literature in its bearing upon antiquities and history; of Classical, Etruscan, and Italic Art and Archæology, including Topography, Palæography, and Epigraphy; and of the art and archæology of the early Christian, the Mediæval, and the Renaissance periods within the boundaries of Italy. It shall furnish regular instruction and guidance in some or all of these subjects, shall encourage and assist in original research and exploration, and shall coöperate as far as practicable with the Archæological Institute of America, and with the American School of Classical Studies at Athens, with which it is affiliated."

In accordance with the provisions of this last clause, all students who choose to go are taken by one of the officers on a six-weeks' tour in Greece, some time during the months of March and April.

Not many foreign students resort to the University of Rome, because, doubtless, the Italian language is little taught in the schools of foreign nations. The stranger, therefore, coming to Rome and finding a school where his own language is spoken is not likely to go much outside of it. But a few months' diligent study of Italian will enable the student to hear lectures in that language; and the opportunities offered by the University of Rome are rich, and its statutes liberal. One of its departments is the Scuola Italiana di Archeologia, the list of whose faculty includes the eminent names of Professors Pigorini for palæo-ethnology, Lanciani for Roman topography, Beloch for ancient history, Loewey for archæology, and Halbherr for Greek epigraphy. Professors Ceci for Italic epigraphy, Vaglieri for Roman epigraphy, and Festa for Greek epigraphy, are also attached to the department. Students, whether native or foreign, who are candidates for degrees or diplomas of any kind, must pay moderate fees and take examinations. But those who wish to hear lectures in a merely informal way are quite at liberty to do so, and do not even have to go through the form of asking permission.

So much for the equipment of the various institutions. But any description of them would be incomplete which should fail to mention the liberal and friendly spirit that prevails among them all, towards the public and towards each other. Interchange of courtesies among faculties and students are constant, and public lectures given at one school are sure of attentive and appreciative listeners from the others. The Italian Government gives to the teachers and pupils of each School *permessi* of free admission to all its museums, and its libraries are also easily accessible to scholars. While the Vatican museums and library are necessarily more jealously guarded, no person who can show that he has good use to make of them is ever turned away. The libraries of the various Schools are of course not open to the public, but qualified persons have no difficulty in obtaining admission to them. Especially is the management of the library of the German Institute to be commended in this respect. I have heard scholars of many nationalities speak in the most grateful terms of the liberal administration of this great collection, and of the helpful kindness of Professor Hülsen and the other learned gentlemen in charge of it. Likewise a student even in the Schools where regular courses of lectures are given, is not expected to attend them if they do not follow the subjects in which he is working. In this case he has no difficulty in securing the assistance of almost any professional scholar in Rome whose counsel he may need. Monsignor Duchesne, the accomplished director of the French School, has told me that, if one of his men needs special guidance, he has no hesitation in sending him to whatever specialist he considers most competent to give it him. But Roman scholars, so far as I know them, never force their erudition on their students. Rather they follow the wise precept of Horace:

"Si quid novisti rectius istis,
Candidus imperti; si non, his utere mecum."

H. EDMISTON.

*The liberal provision recently made by the Carnegie Institute of a fund for the establishment of two research fellowships in the American School at Rome, and for an annual publication, was mentioned in the *Nation* for January 12, 1905.

Correspondence.

ARCHÆOLOGY IN JAVA.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation*, conscientiously keeping in touch with the latest discoveries in archæology and the history of art, architectural, sculptural, etc., I take the liberty of drawing your attention to some doings in a field of which very little seems to be known here. I refer to the new finds made in the island of Java, and the immediate cause of my writing you is a letter received this morning from a friend who resides not far from the Bôrôboedoer (Bara-Budur), that magnificent relic of a civilization gone by. He says:

"The bridge you have crossed so many times between Mendoet and Bôrôboedoer has been washed away, and, for several years to come, visitors to the finest building of old-time Java will have to use a bamboo ferry to reach the other side. . . . Of great importance, for science and art both, is the discovery, not far from the bridge that was, of three beautiful Sivaitic statues, life-size. Remains of the classical Hindu-time, they must have been imbedded in the earth some thousand years, and the remarkable feature of this new find is that, as already mentioned, the sculpture is Sivaitic, while the Bôrôboedoer, so near by, is one of the highest architectural expressions of the Mahayanistic idea in Buddhism."

In this connection, it may be remarked that the purely doctrinal significance of the Bôrôboedoer as a work of religion, apart from its artistic merits, is still a matter of controversy, and the King of Siam, when he visited Java the last time, only added to the confusion by pronouncing in favor of a South-Buddhistic origin. Similar discrepancies, moreover, may be observed between other ruins in close proximity, *e. g.*, those of Prambanan and Tjandi Sewoe, near Jogjakarta.

I shall not expatiate on this topic, fruitful of interminable dispute. I merely wish to point to the fact, pleasant to record amid so much that goes awry in Netherlands India, that the commission appointed for archæological purposes under the efficient leadership of Dr. J. Brandes is doing good and faithful work. Indeed, it was high time, not only that new researches should be made and something should be done to prevent our old Hindu monuments from going to complete ruin, but that theft and acts of the most wanton vandalism should be stopped. It is, for instance, not many years since,

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after the visit of a distinguished personage to the Bôrôboedoer, eight carloads of statuary were carried off, a most beautifully sculptured lion and the image of the "builder," so-called, perhaps a *rakshasa*, among the rest; while of the more than hundred life-size Buddhas in the dagobas, only two or three managed to keep their heads on their shoulders. Government has been exceedingly careless in its charge of the treassures of Hindu art in Java, temples and other structures, illustrating a period of the island's history which else has hardly left any trace. Of the many temples mentioned by Junghuhn as existing on the Dieng plateau half a century ago, not more than seven are standing now, provided they have not been pulled down to get at the stones for building purposes since I revisited that locality of many wonders in 1902. The example of easy-going Rome, where, as we know, interesting old historical sites proved such excellent quarries for building-material in constructing new, uninteresting, cheap, "stylish" flimsinesses, finds followers in plenty. The Dutch Government itself is guilty in that respect. Less than twenty years ago, when the foundations were laid for the bridge over the Progo which showed itself no match for the weather of this rainy monsoon, I saw richly carved temple-stones sunk into the river for that purpose, with the sanction of the Government officials who superintended the work.

The Archæological Commission,* no doubt, will protest against the maxim of "Art is no business of Government" being stretched to that extent in the future. Meanwhile, the Commission goes on, within the limits of a rather scanty appropriation, restoring what threatens to crumble away, and digging for treasures still hidden. It has taken the Tjandi Toempang in hand in the eastern part of the island; it has relieved the Tjandi Paon from the picturesque but harmful embrace of a gigantic tree, which held it enlaced with such loving force that the temple was on the point of falling down disjointed, in a dead swoon; it has restored, as far as possible, the Tjandi Mendoet, with its colossal statues of the Buddha; a marvel of art, a perfect gem of architecture. And here I have to repeat the accepted theory that the Tjandi Mendoet was never finished, like, indeed, according to the latest opinion, the Tjandi 'Bôrôboedoer itself. Legendary lore speaks of an invading army beleaguering the holy place, and the garrison spoiling the builders' work by hurling down piecemeal its heavy ornaments upon the enemy, saving, luckily, the exquisite reliefs which illustrate Buddha's life along the upward path of the pilgrim. However this may be, the Bôrôboedoer and the Mendoet, with other temples in that neighborhood, before their completion, were most probably covered with sand and mud and ashes, in consequence of one of those terrible volcanic eruptions which Java experiences from time to time. The fact that the principal as well as the secondary Tjandi buildings, before their rediscovery, were nothing but mounds, overgrown with shrubs and trees, like the Prambanan temples more to the south, may be accounted for in this way; and in this way also they were preserved till, exposed again to the influences in turn of a tropical sun and tropical rains, they must meet their fate, perhaps rather soon if no more effective measures are taken. It is a pity to think that the ridiculously small sum of money grudgingly set apart for their maintenance hardly suffices to keep the buildings clean, and to provide for a little restoration work, distributed over a number of years, as in the case of the Mendoet, it being quite out of the question to undertake what is needed in the case of the Bôrôboedoer, one of the finest specimens of Hindu architecture in existence.

Excavations have been made near the Tjandi Mendoet with the gratifying result that another temple, at least the ruins of another temple, came to light, on the same foundation, and once, probably, in the same enclosure. There are indications of still more temples, but the search for them implies the removing of a kampong (a little village) situated several metres higher than the Tjandi base levels, in fact, on the surface of the layer of sand, mud and volcanic ashes which support the volcanic eruption theory.

Thus far, and specially taking into account their limited pecuniary means, the result of the work of the Archæological Commission may be called very encouraging, certainly enough so to warrant much more extended and sustained labor in the same field, which promises large returns. Nor should I forget, when speaking of the tardy and hesitating Governmental action, to mention what has been done on private initiative in the neighborhood of Jogjakarta. The archæological society of that place, with its leading members, Dr. Groneman and Mr. Raaff, may be proud of their exertions in unearthing the temples of Prambanan. More work is waiting at the Tjandi Sewoe, the Thousand Temples, and many, many other places of historic and artistic interest in Java. The most interesting of all, *facile princeps*, is the Bôrôboedoer, rising from the fertile plain of the Kadoe, the garden of Java, to the clear, blue sky as a prayer in living stone, tender, passionate, sublime. . . .

The traveller, visiting the Mendoet on his way thither, will do well to make the acquaintance of the Roman Catholic missionary Hoevenaars, from whom the key to the building may be had—a scholar, learned in the antiquities of Java, who knows, as few others, the later and also the earlier history of the great and beautiful temples among which he spends his life, doing for the natives what his hand finds to do as an instructor, a physician, a friend in need. And when the traveller crosses the Progo on the bamboo ferry (for it will take years before a new bridge is built—things move slowly in Netherlands India, if they move at all), he can compare the old Java with the new. Though the structures of men, like men themselves, seem to be dependent on the special stars under which they were born, their fate, withal, shows the worth of their builders: the Hindu Tjandis defy the ages, notwithstanding utter neglect, but the bridges of the Dutch Government tumble down every few years, whenever a freshet comes frolicking along. It is to be hoped that the next Progo bridge, with a few temple stones less for its foundation, will hold out a little longer. Perhaps it was the sacrilege that undid the last one; perhaps a combination of other causes which make the Department of Public Works a byword and a shaking of the head among the people. . . . J. F. SCHELTEMA.

NEW HAVEN, CONN., June 6, 1905.

*The real title of this commission is seven yards two feet and several inches long, Dutch fashion, but the shorter one will do just as well.

BUDDHISM AND THE MONGOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the note on the remarks of Sir Henry Howorth after the reading of Sir Frank Younghusband's paper at the meeting of the Royal Geographical Society on the Tibet mission, your reviewer, perhaps from the necessity of brevity, leaves a wrong impression of the effects of Buddhism on the Mongols as stated by Sir Henry. Speaking of the large numbers of them who have become inmates of monasteries, he goes on to say:

"They have become celibates, they have given up their old military life and their rapacious habits; and whatever else has been done by these lamas of Tibet, they have succeeded in converting the most extraordinarily aggressive race that the world has probably ever seen into one of the most peaceful and the most quiet. Here from the Volga, where you have the Kalmucks at this moment, it is not far to go."

Now unless it is to be counted to a race and a religion, under the new dispensation of the strenuous life, a reproach to have introduced a profound state of peace where before violence reigned unchecked, the testimony of Sir Henry Howorth was evidently intended, so far as it went, as a good word for even "the extremely corrupt form of Buddhism," as he characterizes it, of the lamas of Tibet, and not a fling at it.

E. H. CLEMENT.

BROOKLINE, MASS., June 11, 1905.

CASTE AND TRADES-UNIONISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Caste is the greatest obstacle to progress in India, and how to break its iron rule over the people is the all-absorbing problem of those who have the Indians' welfare at heart. A recent writer illustrates this power by a reference to the difficulties of earning his daily bread which it puts in the way of a brass-worker who has become a Christian:

"All the springs of the trade, all the wealth and standing of it are against him. The mighty power of the members of the craft, down to the smallest child, grinds him hard through every relation of life. There is but one will and purpose through the hundreds of thousands of his people. His touch is defilement, his presence a curse. He is an abomination."

Can any words state more truthfully the attitude of the labor unions towards the non-union man? And are they not, under their present leaders, distinctly and emphatically anti-Christian? J. M. H.

BOSTON, July 12, 1905.

[We so believe. With their "unfair," "foul," and "scab," their labels even upon food, they have revived *tabu* in all its hatefulness.—ED. NATION.]

THE MEMORY OF WORDS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The article—full of interest—on "The Lexicon of Youth" (*Nation*, May 11, p. 369)

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brings to my mind the remembrance of some interesting attempts to estimate the numerical extent of personal vocabularies. How many words can a man remember? That is to say, how many convey a distinct and accurate meaning without the necessity of referring to the dictionary for an explanation? Prof. E. S. Holden devised an ingenious method of testing the extent of his own vocabulary by means of Webster's Dictionary. The result was that he knew the meaning of 33,500 English words. On reading his paper in the "Bulletin" of the Washington Philosophical Society (vol. ii., appendix, p. ii.), I decided to make the experiment, and induced a friend to do the same. I found my available English words amounted to 35,250, and my friend's to 37,000. This was communicated to the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society (Proceedings, vol. xxi., p. 11).

The vast and varied literature contained in the Bible is recorded with only 7,209 words. A Milton concordance shows 17,377, and a Shakspere concordance 24,000 words. Inevitably, the increasing knowledge and varied interests of the present age will tend to the enlargement of the personal vocabulary. Most persons engaged in literary or scientific pursuits, and many who are not, are familiar with some other languages in addition to their mother tongue. If such a man remembers 30,000 English words, what will be the extent of his Latin, French, and German vocabulary? When we consider the cases of men like Mezzofanti or Thomas Watts, the number of words that can be known and remembered assumes almost incredible proportions. There is a tendency, no doubt, to exaggerate the linguistic prowess of these sons of Mithridates, but it seems tolerably certain that Mezzofanti could write, read, and speak in fifty languages. How many thousands of words there must have been stored away in his receptive brain-cells ready to obey the call whenever it should be made!

WILLIAM E. A. AXON.

GREENHEYS, MANCHESTER, ENGLAND,
May 25, 1905.

Notes.

Francis Quarles's 'Sions Sonnets,' in paraphrase of the Song of Solomon, has supplied the latest number in the Riverside Press choice reprints; a light little volume for the hand, archaically composed, and combining the excellences of the editions of 1625 and 1680, the latter being followed in the main. The vermilion binding is tastefully simple and appropriate.

Thomas Benfield Harbottle's 'Dictionary of Battles' in all ages (Dutton) is so far up to date as to include the sea-assault on the defences of Port Arthur, but neither of the two great land battles, nor the final reduction of the fortress. It is a handy compendium, but must be used with caution. Too many details are given to ensure freedom from error, *e. g.*, as in the numbers engaged and the losses in the principal engagements of our civil war. It would not be fair to judge the work by the article on Gettysburg. "On the 1st [of July, 1863], Meade's position in front of Gettysburg was attacked . . . and the Federals driven in confusion *into the town*. . . . On the 3d, . . . Lee's main attack *succeeded in driving the Federals from the ridge*." The compiler of this work died as it was going to press.

Mr. Ralph Curtis Ringwalt's 'Briefs on Public Questions,' with selected lists of references (Longmans), is sure of favor with the young debating community, but is also well calculated to enlarge the understanding and settle the convictions of journalists and legislators. Its themes are logically ordered under three heads, Politics, Economics, and Sociology, *e. g.*, under the first: Naturalization, Woman Suffrage, Negro Suffrage, Educational Qualification for Suffrage, Restriction of Immigration, Chinese Immigration, etc. The Popular Election of Senators, Retention of the Philippines, Reciprocity with Canada, Postal Savings Banks, Government Ownership of Railways, Single Tax, and Government by Injunction are others of the twenty-five. The statement of the proposition is followed by general references and considerations, then by the respective briefs pro and con, with references. The scheme and the execution are to be commended, and Mr. Ringwalt has had in mind in his bibliography the resources of ordinary public libraries.

It would have been much better if (Mrs.) Izora Chandler and (Miss) Mary W. Montgomery had not given 'Told in the Gardens of Araby' as title to their collection of Turkish *Märchen* (New York: Eaton & Mains). Curiously enough, we have not yet any specifically Arabian collection of popular tales, although we have a few from the border lands of Arabia—Mesopotamia, Mossul, Damascus. Nor need the folklorist look in this volume for anything of the kind. What is here is simply tales of the kind collected by Ignatius Kunos in Anatolia, and published by him in Turkish and Hungarian. Some close parallels, also, will be found in Stumme's gatherings in north Africa, but with Kunos's 'Märchen' it is a case of identity. Of course, that does not mean that the present authors may not have made a quite independent find. It would also have been better if they had not added to their title "untranslated until now." Their very first tale has had an interesting fate, and narrowly missed being included in the earliest of all European forms of the 'Arabian Nights,' the French version of Galland. Between March and June, 1709, Hanna, a Maronite monk of Aleppo, who had been brought to Paris by the traveller Paul Lucas, narrated to Galland divers tales, almost all of which he afterwards incorporated in his 'Mille et une Nuit.' On Thursday, May 23, 1709, Galland outlines in his diary this precise tale as having been so told. But he eventually made no use of it—recognizing, probably, its lack of artistic unity—and it was left for Zotenberg, in 1888, to publish the outline in his epoch-making 'Histoire d'Alâ al-Dîn.' Further, from Kunos's Hungarian version seventeen stories were translated by R. Nisbet Bain and published by him in his 'Turkish Fairy-Tales and Folk-Tales' (London, 1896). Several of these are the same as stories here. In the present volume are nine, told with very varying success.

A significant fruit of the present strange religious situation in France is a little volume, 'Religions et Sociétés' (Paris: Félix Alcan), consisting of seven lectures delivered before the École des Hautes Études Sociales, and now published by the School as number twenty-six in its "Bibliothèque Générale des Sciences Sociales." The preface, by M. Th. Reinach, makes very plain what it means when, under a bureaucratic régime, the Church is suddenly abolished and religious and moral instruction ceases automatically throughout the land. Here the problem would be attacked, with very varying success, by a system of Sunday schools. In France, apparently, any elaborate federation and development of these would be illegal, and the French attitude seems to demand further that the State must undertake the labors of the bodies with which it has made away. So, to replace the theological faculties, a chair of the history of religions has appeared at the Collège de France, and a section of religious history at the École Pratique des Hautes Études. But no provision has yet been made for a similar historical treatment of religion in the provincial universities, not to speak of the middle and elementary schools. An elaborate scheme of that kind is the hope of M. Reinach, though how much religion and moral training can be got from history—even religious—may be very dubious in our eyes. The present lectures are the contribution of the School of Social Studies to the problem, and deal, in consequence, less with dogma and literature than with the relation of religion to the social organism. They treat such matters as progress in religion regarded as a constant accommodation of religion to secular progress; primitive Christianity and the social question; the Amalricans, or brethren of the free spirit, as anarchists; Islam and modern civilization; Babism and its future. All have value, but probably the principal thing in the book for us is its suggestion of the situation which produced it.

Büchmann's famous 'Geflügelte Worte,' the classical German collection of sayings, adages, mottoes and the like, recently appeared in its twenty-second edition, 139,000 copies having been issued since its first publication forty years ago. In 1864, it made its appearance as a little reference book of 220 pages, and has now become a thesaurus of 871 pages. The present editor is Eduard Ippel, who has steadily labored to make this work a collection of scientific value for philological study, and commands the able assistance of such men as Richard M. Meyer, of Berlin.

Mr. Alexis V. Babine of the Library of Congress has issued for private circulation an account of 'The Yudin Library, Krasnoiarsk (Eastern Siberia).' The text is in English and Russian on alternate pages, and interleaved with facsimile reproductions of title-pages, bindings, manuscripts, etc.—altogether a fine piece of book making. The collection described is the private library of Mr. G. V. Yudin, a well-to-do merchant, living in Tarakanovo, a suburb of Krasnoiarsk. Here, far away from the literary centres, in a city but recently connected by railroads with the bookmarts of Russia, he has succeeded in collecting a library of not less than 80,000 volumes and 500,000 pieces of manuscripts. The library is particularly rich in Russian bibliography, history and literature, Siberia being, naturally, particularly well represented. The number of old and rare

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books is very large. Complete files of all Russian periodicals devoted to bibliography, and a large number of indexes to Russian magazines and society publications, are to be found in Mr. Yudin's library, as well as the publications of learned societies, especially historical and archæological. One of the most precious volumes is the only known copy of the original edition of Lomonosoff's 'Polydore'; it was used by the Imperial Academy of Sciences for its edition of that poet's collected works. Particular interest is attached to the manuscripts of N. P. Rezanoff, a Russian pioneer in America, which contain many documents relating to Russian settlements on this continent. From Rezanoff's hand is also a "Memorandum for a Future Convention with Japan, if such should take place," undated, but presumably written about 1804. Mr. Yudin is not only an intelligent and scholarly collector of books, he is a bibliographer of note and an enthusiastic supporter of Russian bibliography, witness the three volumes, by S. A. Vengeroff, entitled "Russian Books, 1708-1893," which he published at his own expense, hoping—thus far in vain—that either the Imperial Academy or the Public Library in St. Petersburg would continue the work.

The Society for Book Industry in Stockholm arranged in the Royal Library last December an exhibition of incunabula, of which the catalogue, prepared by Dr. Isak Collijn, lies before us. Not less than 311 incunabula were exhibited, selected from the Royal Library, supplemented chiefly by the University Library of Upsala, and, in lesser degree, by that of Lund, by the libraries in Linköping and Västerås, and by the private library of Baron Per Hierta of Främmestad. The catalogue is arranged geographically and chronologically, according to Proctor's scheme, and begins with fifteen leaves of Gutenberg's 42-line Bible found by Dr. K. H. Karlsson among the archives of Stockholm. Swedish printing during the fifteenth century was represented at the exhibition by 21 of the 27 known incunabula printed within the realm. The larger public libraries of Sweden now possess some 3,300 incunabula, namely, 800 in the Royal Library, 1,500 in the University of Upsala, 200 in Lund, 500 in the cathedral library in Strängnäs, and about 150 in each of those in Linköping and Västerås.

A catalogue of the incunabula in the cathedral library in the last-named city has just been issued, with Dr. Collijn for its compiler. It is an alphabetical author-catalogue, with indexes of printers and subjects, and a very interesting list of previous owners. The majority of incunabula in Swedish libraries originally belonged to libraries sacked by the generals of the Thirty Years' War, and not less than 31 of those in Västerås are shown to have come to it as war prizes, namely, 19 from the libraries in Olmütz, and the rest from Prag, Braunsberg, Hradisch, and Nicholsburg. Of Swedish incunabula this library possesses only one: 'Breviarium Strengnense,' printed by Johann Fabri in Stockholm, in 1495. The oldest book in the collection is a volume of seven tracts by St. Augustine, St. Chrysostom, and Gerson, printed by Ulrich Zell in Cologne, about 1467.

The circular announcing the intention of the New York Library Club to publish a union list of periodicals in the libraries of Greater New York says truly that, "in this city of enormous distances and many special libraries, such a list is the only method of making available for students and inquirers the riches that should be and would be of inestimable service to them." The work of compiling the list will be done by the various libraries under the supervision of an editorial committee, consisting of Miss Isabel E. Lord, librarian of Pratt Institute, Mr. Henry W. Kent, assistant secretary of the Metropolitan Museum, formerly librarian of the Grolier Club, and Mr. Frank Weitenkampf of the New York Public Library. But the work will not be undertaken unless the cost of printing an edition of at least 500 copies is covered by subscription. It is calculated that the list will contain some 12,000 titles in a volume of about 300 pages, "following the general make-up of the Chicago List of Serials." Newspapers, directories, and serials of a purely administrative character will be omitted, as well as transactions and proceedings of societies, medical and pharmaceutical periodicals, and Hebrew and Slavic periodicals.

Without apparent stoppage, save in those public works most easily postponed, the civil Government enterprises in Japan go forward, despite war. Promptly the 'Résumé Statistique de l'Empire du Japon' (pp. 163) appears, along with the atlas-like 'Mouvement de la Population' for 1901 (pp. 357), both with the imprint of the Bureau of Statistics of the Imperial Cabinet. The former gives results of the enumeration of 1903, showing 46,732,841 in Japan proper, 3,000,111 in Formosa, making in 1905 at least fifty millions of souls. Of foreigners resident there were 13,848; of Ainu (or the aboriginal white race) in Yezo there were 17,783; and of Formosan inhabitants, 37,077 were Japanese, and the remainder Chinese or the copper-colored aborigines. In an official publication, the Japanese still use the opprobrious term Aino, which suggests canine origin, instead of the true native word Ainu, which means men. On the penultimate page is a graphic representation of births and deaths in Japan proper from 1873 to 1901, showing a very irregular line of deaths between the 600,000 and 940,000 mark, and a constantly ascending line of births, with but few variations, between the 800,000 and the 1,500,000 mark. Improvement in morals, or at least marital relations, through improved legislation, is seen in the statistics of divorces, the reduction being nearly one-half; the average from 1899 to 1902, inclusive, being 64,841; that from 1895 to 1899, inclusive, being 112,508. The data concerning posts, telegraphs, and telephones, newly arranged, witness great expansion in every part of the empire. On vital statistics, finance, wages, in detail and in gross, the tables show improvement in clearness over previous editions, making a most creditable volume.

The conspectus of Japanese social life given in the 'Mouvement de la Population de l'Empire du Japon' for 1901 is interesting to the student of public hygiene and law, because of the minute detail of births, marriages, divorce, disease, foundlings, etc., recorded in every province. The peculiar customs of adoption, which require so much space in the new codes in treatment of the many cases arising in practice, make the subject complex, yet decidedly interesting to those who realize the composition of a Japanese family. Communal in idea, origin, and procedure, the family in Japan is less an organism held together by blood ties than a legal entity. Many of the so-called "divorces" are, in the light of Occidental ideas and habits, nothing more than the breaking of engagements, and not rupture of the marriage tie; as, for example, when a boy, babe, or youth, adopted to marry the house-head's daughter and take his name, fails to become a husband, the law of Japan registers this failure as a divorce. In the very minute tables of decease by disease, the place, sex, cause, and age are given, with recapitulations. Only 260 persons were declared and registered as foundlings, in 1901; 91 being babes under twelve months. Of persons naturalized in 1901 there were 27. Of lepers, 2,021 died in 1901; of syphilitics, 9,198; of plague patients, 3; of cholera patients, 484. The most disabling disease, affecting the nerves and circulation (from 70 to 84 per cent. of Oyama's army, according to Miss McGee) is *kakké*, or beri-beri; but the tables show it to be one of the least fatal.

In the latest (66th and 67th) issues of Medical Reports of the Chinese Imperial Maritime Customs, two observers throw light on the supposed connection between mosquitoes and malaria. Thus, at Chungking, fever prevails most in the early spring, when there are no mosquitoes to be seen. The town is normally, also, so free from the insect that in many places the net is not required. When the streets are flushed by early rain, there is very little fever. At the Haihow harbor light-station, malaria of a quotidian type is serious. No places were found where mosquito larvæ were breeding or could breed, but Anopheles were plentiful in European and native quarters. Larvæ were numerously found in rice fields a quarter of a mile distant, obviously carried thither by the prevailing winds. "The officer in charge [of the station] made rightly war on those mosquitoes found within doors, and, whether due to this crusade or not, the members of the light staff have ceased developing the malarial paroxysms."

The Parents' National Educational Union held its ninth annual conference in London in May. Among the subjects discussed was the allowance of sleep necessary for boys in the first two or three years of their school life. Dr. T. Dyke Acland said that the result of inquiries which embraced forty of the great English schools and four of the best American, was that from nine to ten hours' sleep was needed by young growing boys, but that only two of the English schools with which he corresponded came up to the highest standard, while all four of the American reached it. In a paper on "Home and School," Dr. Burge, headmaster of Winchester, made a remark which has some bearing on a recent regrettable occurrence in one of our leading institutions of learning. He said that experience convinced him more and more that most of the foolishness associated with the life of boys at school and university was due to the fact that there was one standard of life for home and another for school and college. He welcomed anything that linked the life of the boy at school with the life of the boy at home.

Travelling schools for farmers' daughters are in operation in different parts of Germany and are giving great satisfaction. The

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subjects taught are housekeeping, cooking, the selection of food, the care of cattle and poultry, the cultivation of vegetables, and butter and cheese making. It is now proposed to enlarge the curriculum by instruction in nursing, preparing food for the sick, sewing, mending, etc. The teachers are graduates of the best schools of housework, who have passed Government examinations. Twenty girls, over sixteen years of age, form a class, and a term lasts six weeks, the tuition being so low as practically to exclude no one. Our own remote (and not so remote) farming communities might profit by such an institution.

A month ago (May 11), in announcing the launching of the Vasari Society for reproducing notable drawings of the Renaissance, we made a slip in the address of the Honorary Secretary, Mr. G. F. Hill. It should have been, 10 Kensington Mansions, London, S. W.

—Ray Morris, editor of the *Railroad Gazette*, discusses, in the June *Atlantic*, the question of rate regulation, admitting the burdensome character of the present situation, but pointing out some of the serious difficulties in the relief measure now chiefly under consideration, the Esch-Townsend bill. In passing this bill almost unanimously, his opinion is that the House allowed itself for the time to be transformed from a deliberative body into a band of giant-killers. "Any Federal enactment that aims to cure radically and automatically all existing transportation ills, is sure to prove a remedy worse than the disease, if it does not fall ridiculously short of accomplishing anything at all." The second instalment of William Garrott Brown's study of the Reconstruction period deals with Secretary Seward's management of the State Department, very favorably on the whole, though material exceptions are made as to the conduct of our relations with Great Britain. Frederick Law Olmsted contributes a paper on "Village Improvement," made up largely of a hitherto unpublished manuscript of his father. The main points insisted upon are unity of purpose and persistence—easy things to talk about, but extremely hard to secure in an average American village.

—Considering both thought and action, Raleigh was the most representative Englishman of the great age in which he lived, nor could the virtues and vices of the period have been summed up more compendiously than they were in his career. For this reason he will always be such a favorite subject with essayists and biographers that we need never feel surprised when a new sketch of his life appears. The latest contribution is 'Sir Walter Raleigh,' a volume in the "English Men of Action" series, by Sir Rennell Rodd (Macmillan). Here full justice is done to the versatility of the man and to his noble qualities, while yet we are made to understand why in the days of the Armada he was more cordially hated than any one of the Queen's followers. In the speech delivered just before his execution, Raleigh said in extenuation of his vanity and other faults that he had lived a sinful life in such callings as were most conducive to it. "For I have been a soldier, a sailor, and a courtier, all of them courses of wickedness and vice; but I trust He will not only cast away my sin, but will receive me into everlasting life." Often enough the baser traits of character come to the surface amid prosperity, misfortune being required to show the presence of shining virtues amid much alloy; but Raleigh's whole career seems a comment upon Matthew Arnold's "Buried Life." Deep down in his nature were noble impulses which gave proof of themselves when the world was not too much with him—as it usually happened to be whenever there was a field for the exercise of his varied talents. With a most complex personality for his subject, Sir Rennell Rodd succeeds in indicating its contrasts without rendering them too sharp. A writer with the temper of Macaulay would have made the worst possible biographer for Raleigh, for where the data supply so much light and shade the artist has to guard carefully against exaggeration. This Sir Rennell Rodd has done, for, without lowering the moral standard, he shows a talent for being a casuist within bounds. For us the most interesting chapter of the book is that entitled "Cecil and Raleigh," wherein will be found an excellent account of close friendship waning to something worse than coolness. In Cecil's negotiations with James VI., prior to Elizabeth's death, Lord Henry Howard took an active part as intermediary, nor had Raleigh a more bitter enemy than this scion of the house of Norfolk. What affection Cecil had ever felt for his former friend seems to have disappeared utterly under the dictates of political expediency, which meant the need of excluding Raleigh and Cobham from the council of the Stuart King. Lady Raleigh could never bring herself to believe that Cecil was not a true friend, though the evidence now available shows him to have been the chief cause of her husband's downfall. Sir Rennell Rodd has a sure grasp of his documents and has used them with much skill.

—Every one who has lived in an English village knows how important in the rural laborer's life are the clubs to which he pays a few pence weekly or monthly. The improvident one who falls behind with his "club money" is a marked man, while to pay it in "regular" covers a multitude of sins. There are, in fact, few men in the village community who will not make the necessary sacrifice of beer in order to belong to the "Goose Club," which provides each member with a goose for his Christmas dinner, and to the "Burying Club," so that his wife (who is always assumed to survive him) may give him a decent funeral. If the question of these clubs has ever been looked into by the economists, it has no doubt been recognized how much they contribute to the comfort of the village home and to the solidarity of village society. But we have never heard of a "Trousseau Club" in England. So far as we know, the young women get married as best they can, and the trousseau, if prepared at all, is prepared in haste. They manage this better in France, as we learn from a recent number of the *Réforme Sociale*. The truth is that the French reformer of to-day has to face a condition which at present causes little real anxiety in any other equally prosperous country. This, we need not say, is the depopulation of his native land. He has learned to look on the child as a rare and precious thing. The scarcity of children among the rich he deplores, but he knows well that the rich are never reformed. The intelligent reformer remembers that in every civilized society of which we know anything, the rich have regarded children as one of those good things of which one may easily have too much, while the moderately rich, if they must deny themselves a luxury, have preferred to forego the luxury of children. So it is that if you take up any of the current literature of social reform in France, you will find that the reformer wastes no time in preaching against race suicide to the real offenders, but devotes his efforts to preserving the lives and health of the numerous children of the poor.

—A healthy child, however, implies a well-ordered home. Now it has been discovered that one of the greatest hindrances to the happiness of married life in the working-class in the towns is the lack of a trousseau for the bride; in fact, without it the home is often not founded at all—the nest is not built, simply because there are no feathers. Without the proper outfit of household and personal linen the *fiancée* of the French artisan refuses to face the task of bringing up a family. To meet this need there was founded some years ago the "Œuvre du Trousseau." This is a society which induces young girls of the age of nine to begin to make and to store up the trousseau which is to be handed over to them at the age of eighteen. At fourteen, if the girl has paid regularly the dues of fifty centimes per month and attended the sewing meetings of the society, she becomes a director of the concern by right of her stake in the business, and at the age of eighteen can withdraw her profits in the shape of a trousseau made by her own hands, or, in any case, wholly hand-made and of excellent material. The trousseau consists of seventy-three pieces of personal and household linen—not a bad feathering for the nest. Who is so likely to keep her linen closet in good order and replenished as she to whom it represents nine years of small economies and countless hours of effort? This is the "Œuvre du Trousseau" carried on now in more than sixty towns of France, not as a charity dependent on the caprice of the philanthropist, but as a regular business concern. The English "Goose Club" and "Blanket Club" and all the other village societies aim at adding to the comfort of the home. But the "Trousseau Club" is enriched by a sentimental interest which they lack, and is due to a desire for daintiness, even in the poorest surroundings, which is usually alien to the instincts of the British working-class.

—Under the title 'Tippu Tip: Lebensbild eines zentralafrikanischen Despoten' (Berlin: W. Baensch; New York: Lemcke & Buechner), Dr. Heinrich Brode publishes an autobiography of Hamidi bin Muhammad, the famous African potentate, who has had relations with many of the European explorers of Africa during the past forty years. In July, 1867, he met Livingstone, who was then on his last journey. Livingstone's brief account of the meeting indicates that the Arab chieftain was very friendly. Tippu Tib (a surname or nickname) relates that he found Livingstone destitute of all means of subsistence, and almost saved the missionary from perishing. He describes the latter as a very old man, and observes that, although his name was Livingstone, he called himself David. This reminds one

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of the German who illustrated the difficulties of the English language by pointing out that a name spelled Dickens was pronounced Boz. Tippu Tib's chief interest for Americans and Europeans lies in his long-continued intercourse with Stanley, whom he first encountered in the autumn of 1876, and who described him as a large, active, energetic man, with handsome and intelligent features, well-bred and well-dressed. The portrait prefixed to the present volume, however, shows a typical negro face, although Tippu Tib is almost of pure Arabic descent, the only admixture of negro blood being derived from his grandmother. Like Cameron, Stanley was glad to avail himself of the advice and assistance of so powerful and important an ally. Tippu Tib's account of their negotiations differs widely from Stanley's, and he accuses the explorer of having made him many "lying promises." He states that when they parted, after sailing down the Congo together, Stanley expressed his gratitude in warm words, and said that on his return to Europe he would send him a watch worth $1,000, with diamonds and any amount of money. In 1887, when Stanley was in command of the Emin Pasha relief expedition, he was again desirous of securing the friendship and coöperation of Tippu Tib, and, with the consent of King Leopold of Belgium, appointed him governor of one of the provinces of the Congo State. A little later, Stanley accused him of treachery, and brought suit against him for over $50,000 damages, but this was amicably settled. The German invasion of Africa and the establishment of the Congo Free State had the incidental effect of breaking the Arab supremacy in Africa. Tippu Tib, nearly seventy years old, now lives in Zanzibar, a private citizen, whose wealth is estimated at a quarter of a million dollars, and his advice and opinion are often sought and highly valued by the ruling Powers. His greatest desire is to visit Europe.

THE UNVEILING OF LHASA.

Lhasa and its Mysteries, with a Record of the Expedition of 1903-1904. By L. Austine Waddell, LL.D., C.B., etc. (Lieutenant-Colonel Indian Medical Service). With 200 illustrations and maps. E. P. Dutton & Co. 1905.

For the last half century, Tibet has been that among the unexplored regions of the world which has most excited the curiosity of geographers and students of religion, for though other parts of Central Asia and some parts of Central Africa remained equally little known, they were either deserts or inhabited by savages. In Tibet, however, there existed a sort of civilization, and it was the home of an extremely remarkable form of Buddhism, which had developed an elaborate monastic system and a powerful hierarchy. The English rulers of India had long wished to open up the country to trade, and some of them also wished to establish political influence over it, but the Tibetans, and especially the monastic organization of the Lamas, were resolutely opposed to all intercourse and refused to allow any white man to cross the frontier. Several travellers had from time to time succeeded in entering the country, and a few got within some days' march of Lhasa, the sacred capital. Only one Englishman, however, managed to reach Lhasa, Thomas Manning, who was there in A. D. 1811; and after him no one else except two French Lazarist priests, Huc and Gabet, in 1845. There had for the last twenty years been bickerings between the English and the Tibetans on the frontier of Tibet and of Sikkim, a small Indian protected State on the south slope of the Himalayas, and in 1903 the report of the visit of some Tibetan envoys to the Czar at Petersburg gave the restless and ambitious Viceroy of India the opportunity of inducing the British Government at home to permit him to send a mission into Tibet. The mission was accompanied by a large military force, because resistance was expected. Resistance was in fact offered, and the mission became an armed expedition, which fought its way across the lofty passes to Lhasa, dictated a treaty there, and returned safe into India, having narrowly escaped being cut off by falls of snow upon the passes.

Several books, as our readers know, have already appeared describing this expedition, but Col. Waddell's is the one which is likely to be of most permanent value because he had already given much study to the language and religion of Tibet, and acquired some knowledge of the people by wanderings along the frontier. His book is decidedly interesting. It contains a great deal of new matter regarding the country, descriptions of the scenery and the natives, notes upon the buildings, the customs, the religious pictures and the religious rites. It is in these respects so good that we are surprised it is not better. The author has seen a great deal, but he does not impress us as a man of a scholarly, independent, and broadly cultivated mind. Politically, he is an Anglo-Indian jingo of the familiar type, who sees no rights in any country but his own, and who in this instance does not recognize the Tibetan side of the case, but assumes that the British may go wherever they like, and that their objects are always admirable. Now and then, however, he has glimmerings of the fact that the conduct of Christian nations does not wholly correspond to the precepts of their faith, and he candidly records a conversation he held upon this subject with the high Tibetan ecclesiastic who acted as Regent after the flight from Lhasa of the Dalai Lama, and whom Col. Waddell, in his desire to find parallels in Tibet for Western things, quaintly calls "the Cardinal" because he ranked among the first Lamas after the Dalai.

"I told him that the mainspring of Christ's doctrine was 'peace and good will to men,' as was Buddha's; that Christ had said, 'Love your neighbor as yourself,' 'Love your enemies,' and that our Christian commandments were of exactly the same number as Buddha's decalogue. . . . On this he exclaimed bitterly, smarting under the defeat inflicted on his country by our troops, 'The English have no religion at all!' And on my inquiring why he thought so, he replied deliberately and emphatically, 'Because I *know* it. Because I *see* it for myself in the faces and actions of your people. They all have hard hearts, and are specially trained to take life and to fight.' . . . I assured him that the people of England spend enormous sums of money on religion, and everywhere have built beautiful churches, several hundreds of which are much finer and more costly than any temple in Tibet, and that the commentaries and other books on our religion would fill enormous libraries many times larger than those of the Tibetan monasteries, and that their priests were real ecclesiastics, preaching to and teaching the people, unlike the Lamas, who never teach the people, but keep all their education within their order, and are therefore not ecclesiastics. Hereupon he answered, with a fine scorn: 'But what is the good of all these buildings and all these books and teachings, if the people do not read them, or, in any case, do not practise their maxims?' As he was so hopelessly biassed, I could only reply that I hoped he would judge us more generously when he knew us better, and that he might discover that, because of our superior strength in war, we could now afford to exercise the Christian principle of showing mercy to the weaker."

There are some other passages in which Colonel Waddell shows a certain measure of sympathy with the people to whom the expedition was engaged in giving (by bullets and bayonets) lessons in practical Christianity. Much as he contemns the Lamas, he observes (p. 447) that "the best religions may sink into superstition," though the illustrations he gives from the public worship of the more extreme party among the Scottish Presbyterians is foolish and indeed offensive. The resemblances he points out between Lamaism and the monasticism and ceremonies of the Roman Catholic Church are sometimes curious, but it is not a becoming thing to refer frequently to the Buddhist service as "Mass." However, we are so glad to have the body of new facts regarding Lhasa and Tibet which the book contains, and so willing to recognize the graphic way in which aspects of nature and man are often described in it, that we will pass away from any further criticisms on the writer to note some of the interesting new data which we owe to him.

Not all of the country wears that forbidding character which we have gathered from the 'Himalayan Journals' of Sir Joseph Hooker, who looked into it from the south, and from the travels of Dr. Sven Hedin and other recent explorers who have traversed its northern and northwestern regions. The valley of the Tsang Po and the valleys of the tributaries which it receives in its middle course, near to one of which Lhasa is built, have a good deal of level ground, and are in parts well cultivated. Lhasa, placed at a level of 12,290 feet above tide-water, stands among fertile fields of corn and vegetables. There are orchards of temperate fruits, and masses of brilliant wild flowers along the brooks, "clematis and potentillas, scarlet arums, buttercups, primulas and harebells" (p. 420). Still richer is the lower part of the Tsang Po valley, though, owing to the proximity of fierce tribes, it is but thinly peopled. Indeed, one gathers that the population of Tibet, which is estimated at a million and a half, is decreasing, owing, in our author's opinion, to "the enormous tax of celibate Lamas which the present priestly government exacts from the people, about one out of every two males; and to a lesser degree the practice of polyandry and promiscuity, decimating epidemics of small-pox, and bad administration. Not one-half of the arable ground is cultivated, and there may everywhere be seen evidence of the shrinkage, in abandoned tracts of former cultivation." Although much of the cultivated land appears to be watered by irrigation canals drawn from the streams, the rainfall is larger than has been usually assumed. It is given approximately as thirty inches for the neighborhood of Lhasa. Nearly all of this, however, falls

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during the summer months, the period when on the other side of the Himalayas the rainfall ranges from two hundred and fifty to three hundred inches, or even more. Colonel Waddell says little about the line of perpetual snow, but we gather from occasional references that it averages about 14,000 or 15,000 feet. It is somewhat lower further south, on the southern slope of the Himalayas, where moisture is more abundant.

Of the scenery we hear rather less than we desired and expected. As the mountains rise from a plateau varying from twelve to fifteen thousand feet in height, peaks even so high as 24,000 do not produce anything like so grand an effect as do the outer Himalaya ranges when seen from the plains of India or from the profound gorges excavated by the torrents which find their way from the glaciers down to those plains. At Darjiling, on the borders of Sikkim, the eye takes in nearly the whole height of the stupendous mass of Kinchinjunga, for the bottom of the valley of the Tista is only a thousand feet above sea level, while the summit of that mountain exceeds 28,000. The peak on whose beauty our author dwells is Chamalari, a little over 24,000, by the western foot of which the expedition passed. He mentions no summit of notably greater height, and reports that the detachment of the British force which marched back into India along a route to the northwest behind the main chain, did not discover any peak more lofty than the one which the maps call Mount Everest, and which is variously known to the Tibetans and Nepalese who live near it by the names of Choma Kankar, Zapchi Kang, Gaurisanhar, and Devadhunga. Much debate seems to have arisen as to the name which it is best to apply to this summit, supposed to be the highest upon the earth's surface. Few will desire that it should bear the surname of an Indian surveyor, given to it by the map-makers when its native appellations had not been ascertained; and as the Tibetan name of Choma Kankar means (according to Col. Waddell), 'The White Lady of the Glaciers,' and is the name under which they worship it, or the spirit which dwells in it, this seems a proper title to adopt. This summit was not seen by the main body of the expedition, but it is visible from Darjiling and from the heights above Katmandu in Nepal.

The hopes which the British seem to have formed of a great and profitable development of trade with Tibet, and which were used to furnish a secondary justification of the invasion—the primary one was of course the alleged intrigues of the Lamas with Russia—receive little encouragement from the facts set forth in these pages. Very few minerals are known to exist, and even the gold mines, about which many tales have been told, remain in the sphere of conjecture and belief rather than in that of fact. Borax is exported, and some wool and musk and furs, but in no great quantity. The country is (except the few fertile valleys already mentioned) so poor, nineteen-twentieths of its area being a high and barren waste, and the population is so small, that it furnishes a quite insignificant market for Indian or European goods. Doubtless the population might, under a better government and easier modes of transport, be expected to increase, and industries like the making of cloth and of rugs might be further developed; but when all this has been done, the gain to India from the trade with Tibet is not likely to exceed the interest upon the sums which the British Government in India has already expended upon the expedition, not to add that another expedition may be needed if the Lamas revert, as they will probably do, to that policy of exclusion and seclusion which they have for so many centuries followed.

The most interesting parts of this book are those which treat of the religion of the country, and the singular ecclesiastical organization which rules it. Buddhism is very different here from what it is in Ceylon, or from that still purer and more philosophic form which prevails in Siam. It has been so largely tinged by the primitive spirit worship of the Tibetans and of the cognate Indo-Chinese races which inhabit the long line of the Himalayas and the mountains of southeastern China and northern Burma, as to have become a species of idolatry, full of magical rites and incantations. Indian asceticism has also affected it, and has produced, not only the vast monasteries and nunneries in which so large a part of the inhabitants dwell, but also anchorites, whose severities of life exceed even those practised by the monks of the Thebaid in the fifth century, or those of the Celtic hermits, who banished themselves to bare rocks in the Atlantic, off the western coasts of Ireland and Scotland. Col. Waddell describes a visit to the cells of some of these anchorites in a rocky glen near the town of Gyantse. The recluse lives in a small cave, walled up at the mouth, with an aperture just large enough to permit him to pass out his hand to draw in the parched grain which constitutes his only sustenance, and which is brought to him once a day. His hand is gloved, that the light may not touch it, for part of the merit of his seclusion consists in the withholding from himself of all light. Here the self-made prisoner remains for many years, perhaps for life, neither seeing nor speaking with any living soul, and in so far worse off than even St. Simeon Stylites on his pillar or an Irish saint on his rock amidst the waves.

"Whilst interred in his living tomb, the hermit is given ghoul-like implements for his work and food—a rosary of bits of human bone, a trumpet of human thigh-bone, a goblet made out of the top of a human skull to hold his food. The tasks set him consist chiefly in the mummery of repeating millions of times a spell in meaningless Sanskrit jargon, accompanied by certain gestures and attitudes of the fingers and limbs for the purpose of expelling devils. At various stages of the repetition he must conjure up in fancy the most malignant of the devils, one of those hideous monsters which disfigure the walls of all the Lama temples, whom he must then vanquish by his spells" (p. 243).

Some of the monasteries contain large libraries of ancient books, mostly Tibetan translations of the Buddhist Scriptures of India, narratives of the life of Buddha and commentaries upon his sayings. Some books, however, consist of historical or quasi-historical narratives, purporting to go back to the seventh century of the Christian era. Col. Waddell describes the Lamas as being mostly stupid and ignorant fellows, who make little or no use of their books, except of those which enumerate charms and other appliances of sorcery. One exceptionally intelligent Lama denied all knowledge of those so-called "Mahatmas" about whom we heard so much, and believed so little, a few years ago.

We have left ourselves no space to deal with the description given of the aspect and buildings of Lhasa itself, a picturesque and striking, albeit revoltingly dirty, city. But this description is long, and could not easily be abridged. The book, if it is far from satisfying our curiosity regarding the religion and history of this strange country, does add substantially to our knowledge, and well deserves the attention of those whose interest in Tibet is not confined to the superficial aspects of the people or to the political questions which the English expedition has raised.

A CONFEDERATE LADY'S DIARY.

A Diary from Dixie, as written by Mary Boykin Chestnut, wife of James Chestnut, jr., United States Senator from South Carolina, 1859-1861, and afterward an aide to Jefferson Davis and a Brigadier-General in the Confederate Army. Edited by Isabella D. Martin and Myrta Lockett Avary, D. Appleton & Co., 1905. Pp. xxii., 424.

A diary is almost inevitably a record of the most vivid impressions its writer receives; but some minds are unimpressionable to certain subjects and very impressionable to others. No woman, except perhaps Mrs. Davis, had better opportunities than Mrs. Chestnut to see what was going on not only in Charleston, Montgomery, Richmond, and Columbia, but also, at times, near the army, on plantations in South Carolina and in Alabama, and at two summer resorts hundreds of miles apart. The result is hardly equal to the opportunities, for these were very great. Wendell Phillips once said: "Tremble, my friend, if your sixpenny neighbor keeps a journal. 'It adds a new terror to death.'" This diary would have warranted less trembling and fear of death by any friend than by the author herself and her family. Frankness compels us to say—and let it not prejudice the reader's mind against either the diarist, long dead, or her just published book—that among the ten or fifteen somewhat similar books written by Confederate women this one shows least of the typical Southern spirit of self-sacrifice, and contains more vain chatter about looks and flirtations and love-making than all the others together. At a time when so many women were heroic, industrious, thrifty and serious-minded, she was primarily a tittle-tattler, with both tongue and pen. And she moves one's pity when she tells of her often vapid and spendthrift festivities, and then quotes her husband's well-deserved but not very effective reproaches (pp. 257, 263, 271). Yet, strange as it may seem, even such jottings about frivolities have considerable interest and some historical value. Now we know that Cupid and Mars were like secret allies playing hide-and-seek in the dark, and that there was generally much more gayety than most contemporaries, looking through their tears, were able to see.

Contrary to what one might infer, Mrs. Chestnut's mind was, in regard to many subjects, both open and almost photographic; she was often very candid, and occasionally displayed rare literary skill or, at least, sprightliness. Scattered here and there are many vivid descriptions, both in-

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teresting and historically valuable. Ten days before South Carolina passed her ordinance of secession, the diarist wrote:

"In Camden [near Columbia] we were busy and frantic with excitement, drilling, marching, arming, and wearing high blue cockades. Red sashes, guns, and swords were ordinary fireside accompaniments. So wild were we, I saw at a grand parade of a home guard a woman, the wife of a man who says he is a secessionist *per se*, driving about to see the drilling of this new company, although her father was buried the day before."

Mrs. Chestnut tells, in many bits and often only incidentally, much that is important or amusing, and sometimes both, about four generations of the Chestnuts, who ranked as prime aristocrats. The first one, John, being driven by the French and Indians from his father's farm in Virginia, went to South Carolina, where he was a clerk in a little grocery store owned by a Joseph Kershaw. Within a few years John became a rich planter, and sent his son, James, to Princeton, where tradition says he was called "the Young Prince." James's wife was a Northern woman of fine quality. He increased the wealth he inherited, and was a perfect type of the lordly patriarch, "brought up when men were not saints." He is said to have owned about a thousand slaves, and to have had sixty or seventy in the families of his house-servants alone. It would be safe to believe that he owned over five hundred slaves and was worth nearly $1,000,000, at a time when there were only a few millionaires even in New York city. In November, 1863, after there had been a blockade for two and a half years, his fine wine-cellar was still unexhausted of its "ancient Madeira and champagne." "If everything in the Confederacy were only as truly good as the old Colonel's wine-cellars!" (p. 249). Then, not many months later, in 1864, when he was over ninety years of age, he wrote, "Starvation stares me in the face." His son, James, jr., also educated at Princeton, was the Senator and Secessionist. He was too wealthy, in expectation, to give much attention to planting. But he played his political rôle with dignity if not with wisdom; and the sober-minded manner in which he looked at problems and accepted public and private adversities, seems to put him high above nearly all the other Confederate politicians in South Carolina.

Next was "Johnny," a plantation exquisite, who had just reached his majority and was beginning to enjoy his inheritance. When South Carolina seceded, he had cash enough in his pocket to raise a military company for himself; but, as the money was squandered ere the serious call to arms was sounded, he then turned hero. "So John Chestnut is a gentleman private. He took his servant with him all the same" (p. 59). And later Mrs. Chestnut remarks, "It takes four negroes to wait on Johnny satisfactorily" (p. 187). Johnny became a captain and had several furloughs. In November, 1863, these snapshots were taken of him:

"I do not think he has an idea what we are fighting about, and he does not want to know. He says, 'My company,' 'My men,' with a pride, a faith, and an affection which are sublime. . . .

"Yesterday Johnny went to his plantation for the first time since the war began. . . . 'How do you do, Marster! How you come on?'—thus from every side rang the noisiest welcome from the darkies. Johnny was silently shaking hands right and left as he rode into the crowd. As the noise subsided, to the overseer he said: 'Send down more corn and fodder for my horses.' And to the [slave-]driver, 'Have you any peas?' 'Plenty, sir.' 'Send a wagon-load down for the cows at Bloomsbury while I stay there. They have not milk and butter enough there for me. Any eggs? Send down all you can collect. How about my turkeys and ducks? Send them down two at a time. How about the mutton? Fat? That's good; send down two a week.' . . .

"'I was surprised that you did not go into the fields to see your crops.' 'What was the use?' 'And the negroes; you had so little talk with them.' 'No use to talk to them before the overseer. They are coming down to Bloomsbury, day and night, by platoons, and they talk me dead. Besides, William and Parish come up there every night, and God knows they tell me enough plantation scandal—overseer feathering his nest; negroes ditto, at my expense. Between the two fires I mean to get something to eat while I am here.'

"For him we got up a charming picnic at Mulberry. . . . Then we had as good a dinner as mortal appetite could crave; the best fish, fowl, and game; wine from a cellar that cannot be excelled" (pp. 250-51).

A few months later, in Richmond: "February 12, 1864. John Chestnut had a basket of champagne carried to my house, oysters, partridges, and other good things, for a supper after the reception. He is going back to the army to-morrow."

Johnny survived the war, but, like all others, lost nearly everything. A descendant and namesake of the Joseph Kershaw that had employed Johnny's great-grandfather, had become one of the most distinguished of South Carolina's soldiers. Johnny, pretending to believe that the shop-keeping Kershaws had long boasted that their ancestor once had a Chestnut as a clerk, expressed the hope that this military distinction would enable them "to let the shop rest for a while." Such was Johnny, "who saunters along here now [May, 1865], the very perfection of a lazy gentleman, who cares not to move unless it be for a fight, a dance, or a fox-hunt" (p. 393). The Chestnuts were exceptions, and so far disproved the popular saying that there were rarely more than three generations between shirt-sleeves and shirt-sleeves (p. 392). The Chestnut estate had not even been divided in four generations.

The shifting attitude of master and mistress towards the domestic slaves and vice versa are sometimes picturesquely described in a few sentences like these:

"Not by one word or look can we detect any change in the demeanor of these negro servants. Lawrence sits at our door sleepy and respectful, and profoundly indifferent [although Anderson has just surrendered Fort Sumter]. So are they all, but they carry it too far. . . . People talk before them as if they were chairs and tables. They make no sign" (p. 38).

And, a month later, in Alabama:

"Saw for the first time the demoralization produced by hopes of freedom. My mother's butler (whom I taught to read . . .) contrived to keep from speaking to us. He was as efficient as ever in his proper place. . . . His wife came to my bedside next morning with everything nice for breakfast . . . and embraced me over and over again" (p. 53).

Within another month the slaves on the main plantation of the Chestnuts "were found with pistols." From about this time nearly everybody suspected that the slaves were thinking of flight. The field-hands, the chief sufferers from slavery, were most prone to steal away. Many body-servants, if intelligent and faithful, were often much pampered.

"Lawrence has charge of all Mr. Chestnut's things—watch, clothes, and two or three hundred gold pieces that lie in the tray of his trunk. All these he tells Lawrence to bring to me if anything happens to him. But I said: 'Maybe he will pack off to the Yankees and freedom with all that.' 'Fiddlesticks! . . . After all, what can he ever be better than he is now—a gentleman's gentleman?'" (page 84).

But Mrs. Chestnut remained skeptical. She had a wadded belt made in which she put her gold coin and diamonds; yet she records:

"I leave it under my pillow, and my maid finds it there and hangs it over the back of a chair in evidence. . . . When I forget and leave my trunk open, Lawrence brings me the keys and tells me, 'You oughten to do so, Miss Mary.' Mr. Chestnut leaves all his little money in his pockets, and Lawrence says that is why he can't let any one but himself brush Mars Jeem's clothes" (p. 112). "I fancy the negroes are ashamed to rob people as careless as James Chestnut and myself" (p. 153).

In March, 1862, the field-hands offered to fight for the Confederacy if Chestnut would arm them, but he "says one man cannot do it. The whole country must agree to it. He would trust such as he would select, and he would give so many acres of land and his freedom to each one as he enlisted" (p. 147). And after the war had ended: "The fidelity of the negroes is the principal topic. There seems to be not a single case of a negro who betrayed his master, and yet they showed a natural and exultant joy at being free" (p. 385).

Then there are glimpses of hospital life—the pitiable soldiers with "eyes sunk in cavernous depths and following me from bed to bed"; of the straits so many persons were put to before obtaining food and clothing; of numerous wounded heroes, especially Hampton and Hood; of the mourning and anguish every battle caused in a thousand homes; of Jefferson Davis on his Arabian horse, "graceful and easy in the saddle," as "his worst enemy will allow"; of the daredevil Toombs, "charging too recklessly," thrown, his foot caught in the stirrup—and "down there among the horse's hoofs was a face turned up toward us, purple with rage. . . . ," and then, "though awfully tousled and tumbled, dusty, rumpled, and flushed, with redder face and wilder hair than ever, he rode off gallantly"; of Benjamin, "a Delphic oracle, of the innermost shrine"; of an auction-sale of what was known to the trade as a "fancy-girl," "a bright mulatto with a pleasant face," "magnificently gotten up in silks and satins," and looking "so like my good little Nancy" "I . . . felt faint" and "sat down on a stool in a shop and disciplined my wild thoughts" (p. 13); of Mrs. R. E. Lee and her daughters and other ladies, sewing for the soldiers; of soldiers themselves, now marching ten thousand strong, now on apparently miles of platform cars, "rolled in their blankets, lying in rows, heads all covered, fast asleep"; of men at a station, "sitting on a row of coffins, smoking, talking and laughing, with their feet drawn up in tailor fashion to keep them out of the wet"; of "sandhill tackeys," more widely known as "crackers" and "poor-white-trash"—"one, forlorn, chill, and fever-freckled, yellow, dirty, and dry as a nut," with a few

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peaches to sell, but saying, "Eat your fill. I never charge our soldiers anything"; and of many other sights peculiar to that strange time. Of course, such things are not quite history. But many of Mrs. Chestnut's phrases and sentences make such true pictures, although sketched with an impressionist's touch, that they mean more than a score of ordinary "original documents" from which our dry-as-dusts could make long and dreary quotations and pile up pedantic footnotes. Therefore, we find it easy to forget Mrs. Chestnut's peculiar weaknesses.

MERZ'S HISTORY OF RECENT EUROPEAN THOUGHT.

A History of European Thought in the Nineteenth Century. By John Theodore Merz. Edinburgh and London: William Blackwood & Sons. 2 vols. Pp. 458, 807. 1903-04.

One of the most remarkable characteristics of American society at the present time is the University Zeal. Thirty years ago colleges satisfied us. The title University was indeed sometimes employed, usually in a vague way, sometimes as equivalent to College, seldom as superior. At most, the University was a group of high schools or faculties. Now it is changed. There are a score of institutions which claim to be "true" universities because they are endeavoring to advance knowledge and to develop the talents of superior scholars above and beyond the standard of what is called a liberal education or a general preparation for active life. "Graduate Studies" and "Research" are the shibboleths of University Zeal. An association has been formed and delegates meet every year to discuss the problems of higher education. Munificent sums are given to these institutions, which continue to ask for millions as confidently as the colleges used to ask for their *centum mille* endowments.

To all who are filled with the University Zeal, the volumes before us are addressed—not directly, it is true, but indirectly—for here may be found a learned and elaborate review of the conditions by which Thought has been promoted, and a discriminating analysis of the tendencies of European Thought during the century just closed. University Zeal will be enlightened by a careful perusal of these two volumes, the result of long-continued studies in diverse fields. To estimate their value and criticise their conclusions, a score of experts would be requisite, and, as coöperative history is in vogue, we might add that only by coöperative criticism could an accurate appreciation be formed of these suggestive and illuminating volumes. This is doubtless the reason why so little notice has been taken of them.

The author, Dr. John Theodore Merz, of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, is a sexagenarian, more or less concerned (unless we are mistaken) in chemical and electrical business, who received his early education in German universities, became a doctor of philosophy, and afterwards received the honorary degree of D.C.L. at the University of Durham. Twenty years ago he published a memoir of Leibnitz in the series of Philosophical Classics, edited by Dr. William Knight. The first volume of the work now before us appeared in 1896, and the second, seven years later. The author restricts his view to Europe, and still further limits it chiefly to Great Britain, France, and Germany, touching but lightly on the Scandinavian, Russian, Dutch, and Italian contributions, and not at all, so far as we have noticed, upon the Japanese. He confines himself also to scientific thought, reserving his studies of philosophical and theological thought for future volumes.

His neglect of American contributions to the thought of the last century would awaken sharp animadversions if the author's spirit were that of one of his reviewers, who coldly dismisses the New World with these remarks (in the *Academy* for January 9, 1904): It is "almost unnecessary to discuss any American contribution in the history of nineteenth-century thought. Indeed, it is a serious matter, this, and one to give us pause, that the great Transatlantic Republic has yet to produce thinkers who shall be numbered with the immortals." But the author's estimate, unlike his critic's, is not depreciative; it is simply agnostic.

"The steady growth," he says, "and peculiar civilization of a new and vigorous people, on the other side of the Atlantic, force from me the twofold confession, that there is a large world of growing importance of which I have no personal knowledge, and to estimate which I therefore feel unqualified and unprepared; and further, that I am equally unable to picture to myself the aspect which the whole of our European culture in its present state may assume to an outside and far-removed observer who is placed in the New World. As this New World grows not only in numbers and national wealth, but also in mental depth, as it becomes more and more intellectualized and spiritualized, so it will no doubt experience the desire of recording its own inner life and culture, emphasizing the peculiarities which distinguish it as a whole from our civilization. But the tendencies of this new culture are to me vague and enigmatical, and I frankly admit that I am unable to say anything definite on this subject". (i., p. 14).

Notwithstanding this restriction, American writers have not all escaped the eagle's eye, although the omissions are quite as noteworthy as the introductions.

Throughout this treatise the word Thought is used in a specific, if not in a technical, sense. No synonym satisfies the author—not Science, nor Philosophy, nor *Wissenschaft*, nor *l'Esprit*, nor Learning. In a footnote at the beginning of the first chapter, there is an interesting discussion of the special significance of these terms. The fundamental position of the author is this, that our age is elaborating, by the concurrence of many agencies, a deeper and more significant conception of the unity of all human interests, of the inner mental life of man and mankind. Not in one direction nor under one term can this treasure be cultivated, but individuals and peoples in their combined international life exhibit and perpetuate it. "The word Thought seems to me to be capable of the widest application, and to denote in the most catholic spirit whatever of truth and value may be contained in the combined aim and endeavor of all these modern aspirations. A history of this thought will be a definition of Thought itself."

The treatise is based upon a threefold division of Thought, scientific, philosophical and individual; and the author maintains that the nineteenth century has seen a great development of scientific thought, a great revival of religion, and a development, richer than in any preceding age, of philosophical theories and systems. Yet it is only Science, as we have said, that he here discusses. He enumerates four prominent and novel constructive ideas which have sprung up in the course of the century—namely, Energy in its conservation and dissipation; the doctrine of averages, statistics and probabilities; Darwin's and Spencer's idea of Evolution in science and philosophy; and Lotze's peculiar view of the world's "values" or "worths." These he terms "centres of thought."

Our inheritance from the earlier past is thus spoken of. The whole fabric of society, the whole structure of science and knowledge, all the applications of art, have to be remodelled on new principles to meet our changed demands.

"Very few of the old creations remain: One or two so-called laws of science that survive, a few dozen books that are reedited, half a dozen works of art, one or two great poems—this is about all that the nineteenth century will at its close have preserved as the living inheritance of its early years: all the others will be relegated to the growing bulk of historical records. Possessed of merely monumental interest as documents of a bygone life, these creations had to be left aside as incapable of marking or guiding any longer our onward career. A few centuries lapse, and posterity will look upon them as we do on the huge monuments of early Eastern civilization, on the Sphinx in the desert or the Pyramids of Egypt, wondering by what ingenious contrivances they were raised, what amount of human work and suffering they represent, or what idea lived in the minds of those who planned and placed them where they still remain."

Let us rapidly follow the geographical sequence which the author adopts. France led off, and early in the century established the home of the scientific spirit. This resulted from the union of three forces—the use of exact mathematical methods; the cooperation fostered by the Academy of Sciences (founded by Colbert for research) and by the network of provincial academies; and the Governmental support of scientific work and scientific schools. The popular appreciation of science by men of letters was a supporting agency. The recognized chieftains were Laplace, who lived until 1827, and Cuvier, who died in 1832. The former won this distinction by his epoch-making treatises on the Mechanism of the Heavens and on the Theory of Probabilities; the latter, by his genius in carrying exact research into the centre of individual and organized life, grounding it on the sciences of comparative anatomy and palæontology, of which he was the creator. "The nineteenth century knows no greater figure than Cuvier."

The German mind has found its most characteristic expression in its university system. For the higher intellectual work of the nation and of mankind, Germany had the most powerful and best-equipped army in the pursuit of pure truth and knowledge. If this phase is passing away, "the future will count among the greatest bequests of the immediate past that high and broad ideal of science which the life of the German universities has traced in clear and indestructible outlines." Notwithstanding the vigor of the universities, they were wanting in union and organization, and this disadvantage led to the establishment of scientific periodicals which were the medium for the exchange of ideas and the collecting-ground for researches in an age

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when exact science was not systematically taught. The publication by Gauss, in 1801, of his 'Disquisitiones Mathematicæ,' and, shortly after, his invention of a new method of calculating the orbit of a planet, introduced the higher and abstract branches of science into the programme of a German university. Jacobi, seventeen years younger, led the first great school of mathematicians in Germany, and his work was well supported by the journal everywhere known by the name of Crelle. The experimental side of exact research received a great impetus from the establishment of the first chemical laboratories by Liebig at Giessen in 1826. A little earlier was Mitscherlich's discovery of isomorphism; a little later, Wöhler's preparation of an organic compound from inorganic materials. Still, the most brilliant performances of the exact spirit of research in Germany during the first half of this century lay in a different direction. They produced that central science which attacks the great problem of organic life, physiology, or, as known by its broader name, biology. The brilliant array of the names of great investigators in its manifold departments, and the enumeration of their contributions, justify the claim that biology is a German science, as chemistry is French—so far as the original impulses are considered.

Four characteristics of the German scientists are forcibly presented—their thoroughness; their endeavors to produce that which should be an integral portion of one great science; their readiness to be teachers; and their combination of science and philosophy. Our author concludes this chapter with a fine passage on the singleness of purpose shown by the Germans:

"The universities not only combined in themselves the spirit of research and the profession of teaching, but they infused into the widely scattered teaching staff of many hundreds of schools the same habit—almost absent in other countries—of looking upon private study and research as a necessary qualification of the lecturer and teacher. The educational organization of the combined universities and higher schools has thus become an equally powerful organization for research and for increasing knowledge. Wherever the progress of learning and science requires a large amount of detailed study, inspired by a few leading ideals, or subservient to some common design and plan, the German universities and higher schools supply a well-trained army of workers, standing under the intellectual generalship of a few great leading minds. Thus it is that no nation in modern times has so many schools of thought and learning as Germany, and none can boast of having started and carried through such a large number of gigantic enterprises, requiring the coöperation and collective application of a numerous and well-trained staff. The university system, in one word, not only teaches knowledge, but, above all, it teaches research. This is its pride and the foundation of its fame."

When the author turns to England, he refers to the fact that the history of science in France and Germany during the first half of the present century was identical with the history of the Institute of France and of the universities of Germany, and he raises the question, What have similar institutions done in the country of Sir Isaac Newton? Before proceeding to answer it, he names twelve great men, all identified with one or more novel ideas or definite branches of research. Two characteristics have marked most of these English investigators: They have, at all expense and sacrifice, guarded their individual freedom of thought, and they have almost always shown a strong desire to combine some application with their abstract researches, to take part in the great practical work of the nation. No great master in research can point to a school which undertakes to finish what the master has begun. The investigators often refuse to be tied by exclusive academic duties, still more by official restriction. Continental thinkers complain of the want of method and of the erratic absence of discipline which is peculiar to English genius. What England did possess is the idea of a liberal education. This review of the intellectual life of Great Britain and Ireland calls particular attention to the individualism of the English character, the self-reliant strength of natural genius, which comes out most strongly in its great examples of scientific work. It is not likely, says the author, that the works of Faraday and Darwin should be the last illustrious examples of great and far-reaching ideas sprung from the living intercourse of original genius and nature, without the support of any school.

It is the opinion of the author that, by the want of organization for research and teaching, such as other countries possess, the ideas of English thinkers have frequently lain dormant or have been elaborated by foreigners; but, consequently, original minds have been forced into a closer communion with nature and with life. It is his conclusion that the impartial verdict of history will be that "the largest number of works perfect in form and substance, classical for all time, belongs probably to France; the greatest bulk of scientific work probably to Germany; but of the new ideas which during this century have fructified science, the larger share belongs probably to England."

This brilliant introduction (which fills two hundred pages) is followed by chapters so long that they may be called treatises, on the manifestations of European thought in ten directions or groups of ideas. These are the divisions: Astronomical, Atomic, Kinetic, Physical, Morphological, Genetic, Vitalistic, Psycho-Physical, Statistical, Mathematical. Throughout the volumes, the footnotes are numerous and are even more entertaining than the text, because a certain freedom of style is permitted and many literary allusions are introduced. They are replete with lore. The geographical sequence is discontinued. Each of the summaries is crowded with facts and allusions, varied and interesting. The estimates of the author (sometimes repeated) are so intricately interwoven with these summaries, and his language is so compact, that it is quite impossible, in a notice like this, to do justice to them. The second volume is almost an historical encyclopædia of modern science, written with such care that specialists in each of the main departments must be called in, if judicial opinions of the author's reflections are desired. The index is admirable.

It may not be amiss to commend the entire work to a careful perusal of the scientific associations and reading circles now common in our higher institutions. Such a study would tend to broaden the mind of any reader, and to take him out of the specialization which often impedes intellectual activity, especially if indulged in at too early a period of life. The varied and exact learning of the author, his literary skill, his vivid portraiture of remarkable men, and his judicial temperament, are everywhere apparent.

Bryan's Dictionary of Painters and Engravers. New edition. Volume V. S-Z. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: The Macmillan Co. 1903-1905.

In previous notices of the several volumes of the present edition, we have considered the general advantages of this work in its older and its newer form; its acceptance as on the whole the most useful dictionary within its limited field; and also its drawbacks—such as the absence of readily found dates of birth and death; the absence, in many of the new notices, of that useful feature, the tabulated names of the artist's works; the frequently slight modification of inadequate old notices, especially with regard to the giants of the Continental schools; the unduly enthusiastic and disproportionate character of notices given to Englishmen of recent times. To all this should be added, now, the absence of any system of headlines or running-titles, or catch-words at the top of the page, so that when you reach a six-page notice you have to turn over leaves backward and forward and run your finger down the columns to find the title-word—the proper name—which should be as easy to locate as a term in a common English dictionary. The many inserted plates increase this hindrance to ready consultation.

When at the proper place, we noted that Ruskin, introduced as art reformer and not as painter or engraver, had a long notice, while the greatest art critics known, though mentioned as painters, had scarce a dozen lines devoted to their critical work, or even none at all. To this may be added, now, that Philip Gilbert Hamerton, most patient and useful of popular instructors in art-matters, but also most prosaic and unstimulating of critics, has a very proper, a most judicious notice; while the brilliant and profound R. A. M. Stevenson (though an exhibiting painter, too, and though he died in 1900) is not granted a line. And why is the author of 'Etching and Etchers' called George Philip Hamerton? Neither the notice in Bryan, nor the very full one in the great Dictionary of National Biography, gives this as an original form of his name; nor does it receive attention in Hamerton's Autobiography and Memoir. And Sir Joseph Archer Crowe—if art critics like Ruskin and Hamerton are admitted, why not also that benefactor of his kind?

In considering the fifth and concluding volume it will be well to call attention to the point which has been noted by many writers in American journals—the absence from the Dictionary of notices of American artists whose names would naturally be looked for. Only a few can be given here of the long list of names which we have prepared for comparison with the columns of Bryan. The date after each name is the date of death. Men who have died too recently for mention are not given, *e. g.*, Robert F. Blum, who died in the same year that the first volume was published. Noticeably absent, then, are the names of George A. Baker, 1880; Daniel C. Beard, 1900; James H. Beard, 1893; William Bradford, 1892; J. F. Cropsey, 1900; A. B. Durand, 1886; Wyatt Eaton, 1896; George Fuller, 1884; W. Hamilton Gibson, 1896; James

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M. Hart, 1901; William Hart, 1894; W. S. Haseltine, 1900; Thomas Hovenden, 1895; George Inness, 1894; George C. Lambdin, 1896; Jervis McEntee, 1891; Homer D. Martin, 1897; Theodore Robinson, 1896; J. H. Twachtman, 1902; and A. H. Wyant, 1892. Obviously it is not practicable to include in one alphabetical list an essay on each and every painter and engraver whose name is known to well-informed students of art. Obviously every one who consults this Dictionary must judge for himself how far the numerous omissions are reasonable; and the editor of the new Bryan might say that he did not pretend to completeness in such an outlying painter's field as the United States. Still, it is the critic's part to point out the omissions, and such names as Fuller, Inness, McEntee, Martin, Robinson, and Wyant at least would seem to claim a place in every dictionary of artists. The question should be put to every future editor of such a book, Can you afford to dispense with an assistant editor for the United States?

If a similar overhauling of the great French school be made, not so many omissions would appear, not so much complete ignoring of the strong men; the method adopted with them in order to save room for the Englishmen and the Italians is to give to the recent Frenchmen only a very few words. Thus, while some painters, and especially some engravers, of great worth and renown are left without notice, this is less surprising than that a twenty-line notice should be given to Jean-Charles Cazin or to Thomas Couture; and as to the space, hardly longer, allowed Charles François Daubigny, does our editor really think him inferior, as a landscape painter, to John Constable, who is allowed two columns? Or Diaz, with one-third of a column, does he deserve only one-twelfth of the space allowed to Albert Moore? Or take Paul Huet: if the scale of the Dictionary allows him only about 200 words, what are we to think of the space, six times as great, allowed one who was hardly a working painter at all, Sir Charles Eastlake? One is driven to the conclusion that the book has been prepared for British students; and that the British student recognizes as of full rank among painters only those of the Revival and the following years in Italy, and his own countrymen of the British Isles. So it is that in Volume V. admirable work has been done on the lives and works of those early Italian painters of whom much that is new has been discovered. The preface to this volume names many of them. The other Italian men, better known but never known enough, Signorelli, Tiepolo, and Leonardo da Vinci, have been selected for careful study, and the article on Titian is notable for its discretion and its selection of material from the vast store accessible. So, among the Englishmen, Turner is the subject of a faultless article, much too short except for its long lists of special works. Of Whistler there is excellent criticism and an exhaustive catalogue, and the article on George Frederick Watts is full, and errs only in that exaggerated praise, that constantly recurring note of admiration, which it is natural for a friend (in this case Mr. M. H. Spielmann, the historian of *Punch*) to use when treating of the abundant and striking work of his friend so recently dead.

The conclusion must be that the great new Dictionary is not well and strongly edited; that no proportionate scale has been maintained; that there are unaccountable omissions, and still more unaccountable shortcomings in the treatment of some of the greatest personalities in art; and that the book is insular beyond belief. In spite of all that, it is still the most useful dictionary of painters we have, and also a relatively good dictionary of engravers.

William Hickling Prescott. By Harry Thurston Peck. (English Men of Letters.) The Macmillan Co. 1905.

A new life of Prescott should give emphatic reasons for its existence, and this is afforded in one side of Professor Peck's biography. His view of Prescott strictly as a writer—his description of his methods of working, the gradual improvement of his style, the general character and comparative value of his successive histories—is concise, clear, and judicious. The chapter on the 'Conquest of Mexico,' the criticisms it has undergone, and its permanent value, is excellent.

We may equally praise the account of Prescott's reception in England. But, with this slight exception, the account of Prescott as a man is far from satisfactory. It is instinct with what it is greatly to be feared the author would call "*modernity.*" He seems wholly incapable of liking or even of understanding Puritans, or the descendants of Puritans. The Prescott race no doubt was not conformed to the image which that name ordinarily suggests; but they and their children—the soldier, the judge, the writer—were all born with the Puritan sensitiveness of conscience. It was this that converted the last of the trio, with every imaginable excuse, external or internal, for idleness, into one of the hardest workers of his time; it was this that made him sternly control, if he did not eradicate, a number of very harmless and even amusing weaknesses. Professor Peck, however, seems to set little value on this discipline of conscience. He is full of the decadent doctrine that any man, to be truly lovable, must have a strong "human" (*i. e.*, vicious) element. He is really sorry that the historian of Cortez suppresses an unsavory incident which affects the story in an infinitesimal degree. He ascribes this truly to Prescott's innate purity of mind (p. 144), which he calls "interesting," "delicate," "sensitive," instead of falling down in awe before it as he ought. On the contrary, he insists on reading between the lines of Prescott's early life, and inferring that Prescott must have been "human"—in other words, dissipated—in a passage which may serve as a model of what inferential analysis of a man's life ought not to be (p. 29).

The introductory chapter, on the literary history of the country, is, to say the least, eccentric. Surely, when he settles Bryant prematurely in New York, Mr. Peck knows that "Thanatopsis" first appeared (a fragment, it is true) in the *North American Review*, and that Bryant, wherever he lived, was a Yankee pure and simple. There are a variety of other peculiar statements; perhaps the most flagrant is saying that Scott dictated the 'Bride of Lammermoor' to Lockhart (p. 86). "Oxford," of course, is the usual term employed by Americans for either English University (p. 3).

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden, W. L. Jimmy Brown Trying to Find Europe. Harpers. 60 cents.
Baldwin, Simeon E. The American Judiciary. Century Co.
Betting and Gambling: A National Evil. Edited by B. Seebohm Rowntree. Macmillan Co. $1.60.
Brancoff, D. M. *La Macédoine et sa Population Chrétienne.* Paris: Plon-Nourrit et Cie.
Brown, William Haig. Carthusian Memories. Longmans. $1.60 net.
Challaye, Félicien. Au Japon et en Extrême-Orient. Paris: Armand Colin.
Clark, E. Warren. Katz Awa. B. F. Buck & Co.
Clement, Ernest W. Christianity in Modern Japan. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society. $1 net.
Crosby, Ernest H. Tolstoy as a Schoolmaster. Chicago: The Hammersmark Publishing Co.
Dixon, Harold B. The Nature of Explosions in Gases. Henry Frowde.
Dixon, Thomas, jr. The Life Worth Living. Doubleday, Page & Co.
François, Alexis. *La Grammaire du Purisme et l'Académie Française.* Paris: Société Nouvelle.
Garland, Hamlin. Rose of Dutcher's Coolly. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Gerard, Dorothea. Sawdust. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co. $1.
Gilman, Mary L., and Elizabeth B. Williams. Seat Work and Industrial Occupation. Macmillan Co. 50 cents.
Gooch, Frank Austin, and Claude Frederic Walker. Outlines of Inorganic Chemistry. Macmillan Co. $1.75 net.
Great Argentina. Putnams. $2.50 net.
Hart, Albert Bushnell. Essentials in American History. American Book Co.
Hawthorne's House of the Seven Gables. Edited by Clyde Furst. Macmillan Co.
Hemstreet, Charles. The Broadway of Yesterday: A Collection of Twenty Prints. Cadwallader Pub. Co.
Herrick, Francis Hobart. The Home Life of Wild Birds. $2 net.
Herrick's Poems. (Caxton Thin Paper.) Imported by Scribners. $1.25 net.
Hocking, Joseph. The Coming of the King. Boston: Little, Brown & Co. $1.50.
Holder, Charles F. Half-Hours with the Lower Animals. American Book Co.
Howells, William Dean. Miss Bellard's Inspiration. Harpers. $1.50.
Howorth, Henry H. Ice or Water. Vols. I. and II. Longmans. $12 for 3 vols.
Hyslop, James H. Science and a Future Life Boston: H. B. Turner & Co.
Jernigan, T. R. China in Law and Commerce. Macmillan Co. $2 net.
Jevons, W. Stanley. The Principles of Economics. Macmillan Co.
Johnson, C. B. William Bodham Donne and his Friends. Dutton. $3 net.
Jordan, David Starr. A Guide to the Study of Fishes. 2 vols. Henry Holt & Co.
Judson, Frederick N. The Law of Interstate Commerce. Chicago: T. H. Flood & Co.
Keen, William Williams. Addresses and Other Papers. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders & Co. $3.75 net.
Koerner, W. H. D. The Girl and the Deal. Philadelphia: George W. Jacobs & Co.
Lamb, M. T. The Child and God. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
London, Jack. The Game. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
MacDonnell, John de Courcy. King Leopold II. Cassell & Co. $6 net.
Malcolm, Napier. Five Years in a Persian Town. Dutton. $3 net.
Marks, W. Dennis. An Equal Opportunity. Philadelphia: Patterson & White Co. $1 net.
Michel, André. Histoire de l'Art. Fascicules 1 to 4. Paris: Armand Colin.
Modern Bridge. By "Slam." Longmans. 90 cents net.
Monod, Bernard. Le Moine Guibert et son Temps. Paris: Hachette & Cie.
Moody, William Vaughn, and Robert Morss Lovett. A First View of English Literature. Scribners. $1.
Morrison, John H. History of American Steam Navigation. W. F. Sametz & Co. $4 net.
Plunkett, Horace. Ireland in the New Century. Dutton. 60 cents net.
Pocket R. L. S., The. Scribners. 50 cents.
Prelini, Charles. Earth and Rock Excavation. D. Van Nostrand Co. $3 net.
Proverbs, by George R. Berry. Songs of Songs, by George E. Merrill. Philadelphia: American Baptist Publication Society.
Puffer, Ethel. The Psychology of Beauty. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25 net.
Purchas's Voyages. Vols. III. and IV. Macmillan Co.
Robins, Elizabeth. A Dark Lantern. Macmillan Co. $1.50.
Robinson, James J. Selections from Roman Law. American Book Co.
Salter, William. Iowa: The First Free State in the Louisiana Purchase. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Sandys, John Edwin. Harvard Lectures on the Revival of Learning. Macmillan Co.
Saunders, Marshall. Princess Sukey. Eaton & Mains. $1.75 net.
Schmidt, Charles. Le Grand-Duché de Berg. Paris: Félix Alcan.
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